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ABSTRACT

This guide provides staff development leaders in schools and school districts with practical information about professional development systems. It is organized in eight chapters, each dealing with a phase of an effective professional development program. The essential components of the program constitute a framework for staff development. The components include: (1) getting started--creating a new system or improving an existing one; (2) educating the decision makers--informing all of those involved in decision making and action for staff development; (3) creating a collaborative structure--defining the program mission, creating a management plan, and formally authorizing the program; (4) team building--creating collegial and collaborative relationships; (5) assessment and goal setting; (6) designs for learning--formal and informal activities for professional growth; (7) program evaluation; and (8) maintenance and continuity. Each chapter begins with an overview of its contents, followed by the goals and an outline of activities. Specific activities to educate the staff further and implement each component are described. Readings, handouts, and transparency masters to accompany each activity are included in a separate packet. (JD)

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Building Systems for Professional Growth
An Action Guide

and

Handouts, Transparencies, and Readings

Margaret A. Arbuckle
Lynn B. Murray

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Foreword

Teacher development is a critical part of the mission of The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast Islands. Teachers who model their dedication to their own learning inspire youngsters to achieve and succeed. For that reason alone, providing teachers opportunities to grow professionally should be a top priority, and for us, it is.

Good professional development is collaborative and comprehensive. It brings people together to improve learning for everyone. It models how our schools ought to work -- by drawing on the energy and expertise of everyone, it creates a school that is indeed a learning community.

Like its precursor and parent, *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development, Building Systems for Professional Development: An Action Guide* has much in common with good staff development programs. It is based on research *and* good practice. It incorporates a variety of modes and formats to reach different kinds of learners, at all stages of development. But, above all, it reflects our dedication to supporting professional growth, and doing so collaboratively.

This guide is the product of many minds and hands. Its authors, Margaret Arbuckle and Lynn Murray, worked long and hard to share their years of experience (and contents of their file cabinets) in order to support the work of other staff developers. Their collaboration has made this book not only practical, but usable in different settings, from schools and districts (where Lynn spends most of her time as a principal) to institutions of higher education and state education departments (where Margaret keeps staff development alive and well). What's more, they have used and perfected every single activity, tool, and procedure -- not a small feat in today's busy world.

To keep us honest and ensure completeness and quality, a number of educators from our own region, and others from across the country, thoughtfully reviewed a draft of this guide. They include: Anadia Andrews, Cheryl Brady, Anthony Link, Lynne Miller, Alexander Blastos, Sara Denny, Pat Archambault, Martin Brooks, William Dandridge, Darlene Worth, Masha Rudman, Andrea Stein, Carmen Goodman, Diana Rivera-Viera, Phil Blood, Carole Sedita, Susan Ellis, and Thomas Fitzgerald. We thank them all for their invaluable comments and suggestions.

Last, but not least, we'd like to acknowledge those who moved the guide from good intentions to a product of which we are proud. The primary production team has included: John Fleener, who patiently typed revision after revision, long after he left his job and began student teaching; Jill Kaufman, who hunted down and obtained permissions for all the tools and articles we borrowed or reprinted; Susan Mead, who organized and coordinated the effort and kept things from falling through the cracks; Jan Johnson, who has painstakingly proofed version after version; and Lori Larsen, who kept the parts steadily moving towards completion.

While it has taken much time and hard work, as all collaborative efforts do, the development of this guide has always been done with a spirit of good will and a dedication to those whose lives and work it is meant to improve. We at The Regional Laboratory hope that it will find its way into every staff developer's library and from there that it will be used to enhance the learning of adults and young people alike.

Susan Loucks-Horsley
Program Director for Teacher Development
The Regional Laboratory for Educational
Improvement of the Northeast and Islands

Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION 1

CHAPTER 1 -- Getting Started 1-1

CHAPTER 2 -- Educating the Decision Makers 2-1
  Activity 1
    Identifying Beliefs about Professional Development 2-3
  Activity 2
    School Improvement through Staff Development 2-5
  Activity 3
    Learnings from Research on Staff Development 2-7
  Activity 4
    Beliefs about Staff Development 2-13
  Activity 5
    Critical Attributes of Successful Staff Development 2-15
  Activity 6
    Self-Assessment and Identification of Critical Attributes for Improvement 2-47

CHAPTER 3 -- Designing a Collaborative Structure 3-1
  Activity 1
    Educating the Design Team about a Staff Development Structure 3-5
  Activity 2
    Developing a Mission Statement and Guidelines for Professional Growth 3-23
  Activity 3
    Developing a Collaborative Management Plan 3-31
      Activity 3A, Force Field Analysis 3-31
      Activity 3B, Definition of Responsible Groups 3-35
      Activity 3C, Small Task Force Work 3-43
      Activity 3D, Time 3-59
  Activity 4
    Securing Support and Formal Authorization 3-61

CHAPTER 4 -- Team Building 4-1
  Activity 1
    Anticipating Stages of Team Development 4-3

Activity 2
Understanding Team Roles and Functions 4-13
Activity 3
Reaching Decisions by Consensus: 4-31
Activity 4
Conducting Better Meetings 4-41
Activity 5
Assessing Team Effectiveness 4-61

CHAPTER 5 -- Assessment and Beyond: Determining Priorities for Professional Growth 5-1
Activity 1
Educating Decision Makers About Assessment 5-5
Activity 2
Approaches to Determining a Focus for Professional Development 5-17
Activity 3
Information Sources and Methods of Collection 5-23
Activity 4
Reaching Consensus on Priority Needs 5-37
Activity 5
Problem Definition and Goal Setting 5-39

CHAPTER 6 -- Effective Designs for Learning 6-1
Activity 1
Educating the Decision Makers about Program Design 6-5
Activity 2
Alternative Approaches and Formats for Professional Growth
- Fact Finding - 6-13
Activity 3
Identifying Resources and Possible Improvement Strategies
- Fact Finding - 6-23
Activity 4
Solution Selection
- Narrowing the Possibilities - 6-33
Activity 5
Tailoring Activities to Participants' Concerns
- Narrowing the Possibilities - 6-39
Activity 6
Selection and Use of Consultants
- Narrowing the Possibilities - 6-53

Activity 7
Developing an Action Plan
- Putting It All Together - 6-57
Activity 8
Creative Pessimism
- Putting It All Together - 6-67

CHAPTER 7 -- Responsive Evaluation of Staff Development Programs 7-1
Activity 1
Describing the Program You Are Evaluating 7-5
Activity 2
Involving Participants in the Evaluation Process 7-15
Activity 3
Outcomes and Documentation Techniques 7-29
Activity 4
Audiences and Their Concerns 7-39
Activity 5
Content Analysis
How to Make Sense of Information as It is Collected 7-79
Activity 6
Developing Surveys to Verify and Quantify Emerging Themes 7-95
Activity 7
Reporting Evaluation Results 7-113

CHAPTER 8 -- Maintenance and Continuity 8-1
Activity 1
Building Strong Cultures 8-5
Activity 2
Revisiting Good Practices in Staff Development 8-7
Activity 3
Conversations About Staff Development 8-11
Activity 4
Assessing Staff Development 8-15
Activity 5
Problem-Solving Capsule 8-21
Activity 6
Checking Program Implementation 8-25
Activity 7
Maintenance Retreat 8-29

INTRODUCTION

Building Systems To Promote Professional Growth

> *I have a definite feeling that any inservice we're doing here has a direct impact on what we're doing in the classroom or on immediate school problems. For once I see some relevance in the programs. Why? Because it's now in the hands of teachers and because we were given some direction in looking at needs and setting up a system.*
>
> *High School English Teacher*

> *[Training in models of teaching] has really improved my teaching. I had reached a point of hating teaching -- burnout. Models were stimulating, exciting, fun to do. It gives you a beginning and an end -- a closure. The kids are more enthusiastic. I see a difference in their thinking.*
>
> *Elementary School Teacher*

> *I now know I'm not alone. The [Special Education Staff Development] Network has given me the commitment I needed to be and stay in special education. I'm proud to be a special educator.*
>
> *Resource Room Teacher*

A school is only as effective as its staff. A healthy school environment supports children's growth and provides an environment that supports the continued growth of the adults within it as well. The two go hand in hand. Continued professional growth not only keeps teachers in the profession, but makes the difference between children learning and not learning.

But creating such a learning environment means more than simply conducting an inservice workshop now and then or a training program on effective teaching. It's more complex than one-shot workshops and broader than improving instructional skills. We are really talking about creating a professional culture in schools. With successful staff development[1], the culture of a school changes. The way staff communicate, feel, talk, as well as what they do in their jobs, is affected.

---

[1] Throughout this book, we use the terms staff development and professional development interchangeably.

Creating such an environment not only provides growth experiences that have real meaning to staff but also empowers them as leaders of the efforts. It means creating systems within schools that promote and support leadership and growth. A staff development system is an integrated whole: a cohesive framework for professional growth within which a variety of learning activities, people, resources, and policies are connected. The system is larger than the content or skill-specific staff development programs contained within it. To be successful, staff developers must pay attention to both.

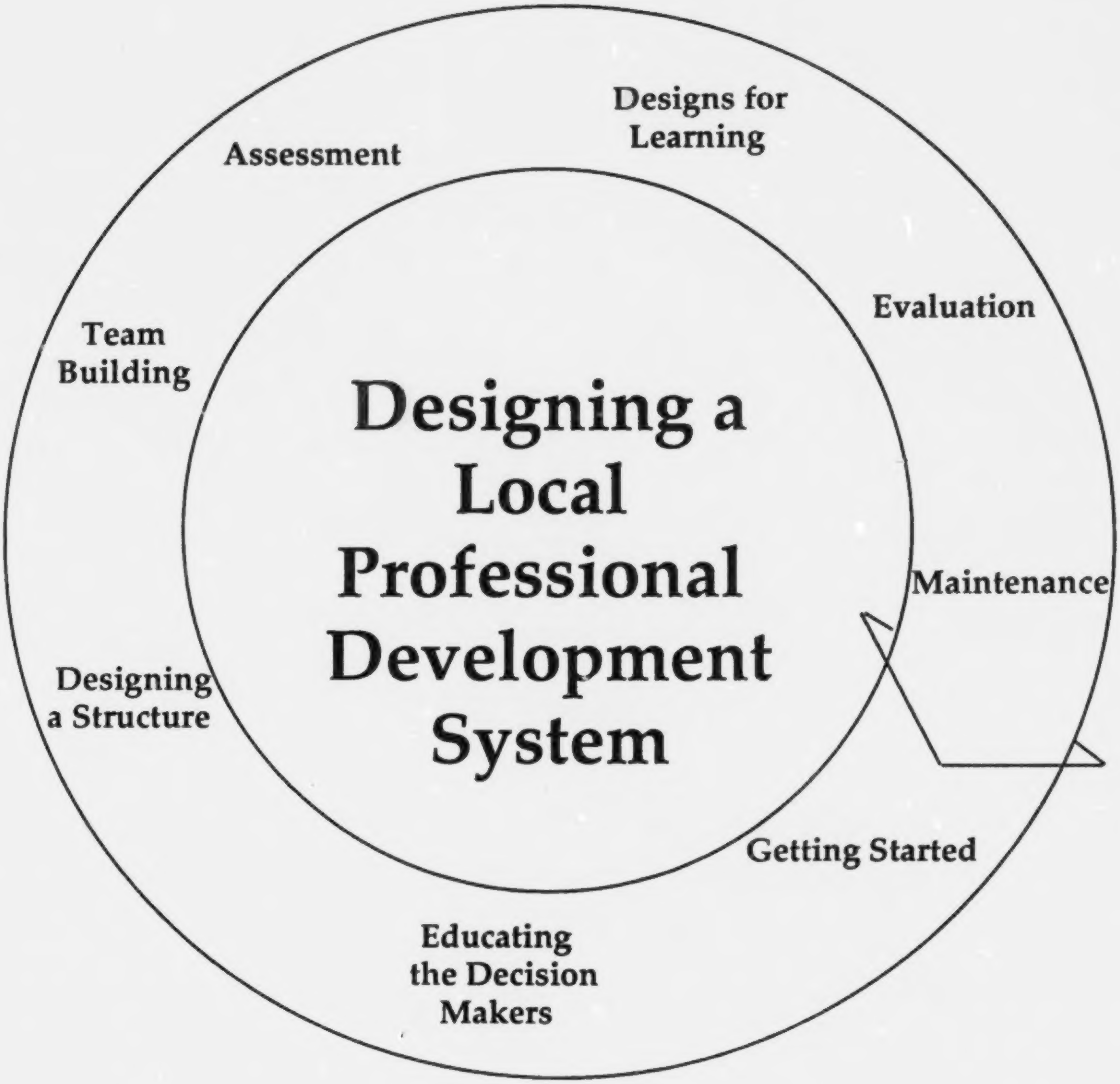
The issue of which should be developed first, the structure supporting the system or focused programs, has been heartily debated with no clear cut answer. A rational, linear approach suggests first the development of a structure within which specific professional development strategies are supported and carried out. It makes sense. In practice, however, most people tend to be more program-oriented and think first of specific professional development opportunities that will make a difference to teachers and students. Such is the case in one school which has been heavily involved in models of teaching and peer coaching training over the past two years. They've been deeply touched by the program, both in terms of skills development and impact on students. New norms of collegiality and professionalism have developed. They now want others to be involved and want to assure that this program and others like it continue. They are interested in developing a system to do so.

A focus on program development alone may work for a while. However, if there aren't assurances for continued support and involvement, infusion of new ideas, development of leaders, and allocation of time and money, professional growth activities almost inevitably stall or dwindle to nothing. Without structures promoting and protecting them, staff development activities tend to depend on an energetic person or two. When they tire or move on to other jobs or districts, everything ceases. Collaborative systems for staff development that are public and formally authorized assure the involvement and leadership of more than a few and increase the likelihood that activity will continue over time. Whether attention is first paid to program development or to the development of an umbrella structure, that structure is nonetheless critical. This book focuses on the development of staff development systems which will ensure the continued provision of meaningful professional growth programs.

Necessary Parts of a Professional Development System

The development and maintenance of a successful professional development system requires continued attention to what we consider the essential components or ingredients (see Figure 1). These parts constitute a framework or advance organizer for staff development and need to be attended to consciously over time. Thus, they form the table of contents of this book. There is nothing new or magical about them, but they are often not viewed as part of the larger "whole" and, in turn, not attended to. The usefulness of this framework is that it can give direction and coherence to what otherwise might be fragmented and unfocused efforts. Lack of attention to any one of these parts can seriously jeopardize your success. A quick sketch of each follows.

Figure 1


Designs for Learning
Assessment
Evaluation
Team Building
Designing a Local Professional Development System
Maintenance
Designing a Structure
Getting Started
Educating the Decision Makers

Getting Started: Getting started in staff development may mean creating a new system where there is none, or it may mean rebuilding or improving an existing one. Regardless, how and where do you start? Are there any conditions which are necessary for a successful start? How can you diagnose where you are and your readiness for change? How have others started? What are some specific first steps? These are

questions which should be raised and discussed before going further. It's possible that conditions might be such that you shouldn't get started.

Getting serious about staff development and the development of a system supporting it requires a champion or advocate -- someone (or ones) who recognizes its importance, understands that it must be a collaborative effort to be successful, and is willing and able to make it happen. A champion provides the leadership necessary to initiate an integrated staff development system, finds necessary resources, and garners support from staff and central administration. A champion provides the leadership to assess and develop readiness for change, form a collaborative design team, diagnose current practices, and continue to educate staff about successful staff development.

Educating the Decision Makers: The quality of a staff development system is determined by the quality of the decisions that drive it. And quality decisions mean informed decision makers. By decision makers we're referring to all those involved in decision making and action for staff development. A substantial body of knowledge exists about conditions and practices that appear to lead to continued professional growth as well as the planning processes to achieve them. While some of this knowledge is intuitive, much of it isn't. Regardless, this knowledge should guide staff development efforts. The days of "workshop mentality" should be behind us. As with team building, knowledge building should never end.

Creating a Collaborative Structure: The development and maintenance of a professional environment for staff cannot be left to chance or administrative initiative alone. It is too important. The right and expectation of continued professional development needs to be protected as well as nurtured. A collaborative structure can do this. Such a structure is public, formal, and provides the framework for the creation and sustenance of conditions necessary for continued learning. A collaborative structure assures the involvement and leadership of more than a few and increases the likelihood that growth activities will continue over time. Three tangible elements of a structure for improvement are: (1) a statement of mission and guiding beliefs about professional growth; (2) a management plan defining responsible groups and operating procedures; and (3) formal authorization.

Team Building: Successful staff development is a collective and collaborative effort. Creating collegial and collaborative relationships is a vital strategy for supporting individual and organizational growth. Yet people do not necessarily know how to work together and make thoughtful decisions; they especially don't if isolation has been their norm. Collaboration is hard work, untidy, and often fragile. Letting go of ideas and really listening to others' views is not easy. Attention to team building is particularly useful in meeting inevitable conflict and minimizing real or imagined barriers between teachers and administrators. Training in team building can help staff development teams immeasurably, especially if it begins as soon as a team is formed and attended to over time. Even mature, sophisticated teams can get sloppy and unproductive.

Assessment: Assessment and goal setting that accompanies it is one of the most important responsibilities of staff developers. It is also commonly abused. Too often teachers are "needs assessed" to death with no visible results, or, at best, a workshop or two on topics of interest. Sometimes a needs assessment is used only to validate decisions already made by the administration. Assessment is more than a survey or questionnaire; this deeply embedded stereotype needs to be dispelled. Successful assessment requires decision makers knowledgeable about a variety of approaches and techniques who make thoughtful decisions about which ones best suit the context of their schools. A good assessment is a conscious and public activity that involves staff in authentic ways. Needs may stem from significant problems or simply represent conditions which are believed to be better. The outcome of an assessment is a set of thoughtfully and clearly articulated goals for professional growth.

Designs for Learning: A collaborative structure alone will not lead to growth. The worth of the system is ultimately determined by the worth of the activities contained within it. These activities are the heart of a staff development system and refer to the professional growth opportunities – formal and informal -- that the system supports. Unfortunately, the selection or design of quality professional growth opportunities is a major hurdle for many staff development planners. Short-term isolated activities on relevant (at best) or irrelevant topics, unlikely to do more than increase awareness, continue to be the wearying norm in many school districts. Training continues to be viewed as the primary, if not the sole vehicle, for professional development. Such a limited view is unfortunate because so many alternatives are possible. And some of these are likely to be vastly more effective and desirable. In addition to knowledge of alternative approaches, success in creating designs for learning requires knowledge of available resources, appropriate matching to local needs, skill in selecting consultants, and, of course, conscious application of what is known about successful staff development practices.

Evaluation: Most people agree that evaluation of professional development is necessary, yet there are few attempts to do more than measure "happiness coefficients" at the completion of workshops. With more and more calls for accountability, and with shrinking resources, staff developers need approaches to evaluation that are practical, useful, and yet rigorous enough to be believed. Few staff developers are evaluators, yet most can ask perfectly good questions and develop the skills necessary to go about finding believable answers. Assuming that the purpose of evaluation is to aid decision making about the future of the system and its programs (i.e., its uses, changes and resources needed at any given time), information is needed about program processes and effects. The evaluation approach we propose addresses the questions of the most important audiences and gathers and analyzes information through naturalistic inquiry.

Maintenance and Continuity: Organizational structure and authorization of a professional development system will assure its existence. They will not, however, assure its vitality or quality. Both conditions are necessary for a professional development system to be maintained over time. An effective system that is more than an artifact requires continued and conscious attention to its members, its content, and its structure. This assumes a culture that supports professional growth and the leadership to develop it. Conscious attention to maintenance, over time, increases the likelihood that a staff development system will indeed endure.

These components are not necessarily followed in order, although there is a logical sequence to the parts. Many of them, such as team building and educating, should be returned to regularly. But the realities and complexities of school life intrude upon a hyper-rationalistic, sequential plan. Limited time and a desire for quick action – realities prevalent in most schools -- may curtail attention to some of the parts. In addition, the readiness of the staff for serious attention to the parts must be considered. For example, an introduction to alternative strategies for professional development may result in few, if any, changes for a fledgling staff development team that is most concerned about establishing a positive climate. However, revisiting or extending that information after a year's experience may lead to an entirely different look at staff development. Staff, particularly those new to staff development roles, often need to jump in and do something in order to recognize the need for more and better planning or for their own education. It takes time and experience to let go of old notions, to develop a new vision of professional growth, and to develop the leadership skills to achieve it. It's dangerous to believe that engaging with each of the components in a tidy, linear fashion will lead to a stimulating climate of learning and growth . It's not that simple.

For example, a district professional development leadership team developed a structure of district and building-based teams. They planned to form the teams in the fall, spend time educating themselves about assessment and program design in the early winter, in preparation for thoughtful assessment and program planning in the spring. At the time it sounded reasonable. However, it didn't quite work that way. Once the teams were formed as scheduled, they wanted to do something quickly so they did a "quick and dirty" assessment, followed by workshops. More of the same. The teacher leaders of the teams recognized the need to break the old cycle by further educating the group, but they also recognized the need for visible action rather than quiet planning. With the team firmly formed and recognized, however, they could then engage in a workshop on assessment and program planning. They were ready for it.

Groups sometimes reach a plateau after the momentum of getting started, initial team building, educating, and developing a collaborative structure. The result of careful attention to these phases can lead to a new collegial climate which is exciting, hopeful, and sometimes inspiring.

Staff are talking and thinking about professional growth in different ways. They are involved, are assuming leadership roles, are working collegially, and have new visions of what staff development can be. The establishment of such a positive climate is critical for growth. It serves as a necessary foundation for seriously examining and creating the most desirable kinds of professional growth opportunities. But groups sometimes get stuck at this point, feeling terrific, but continuing to plan limited inservice days and workshops that have a limited impact on classroom behavior and student learning. They do what they previously criticized administrators for doing. This is a critical juncture. While the importance of climate building should not be minimized, movement towards a variety of professional growth options focused on real change must occur. A collaborative structure alone is worth little if resulting activities don't really affect staff and students in significant ways. And traditional inservice activities usually don't. We've found staff development teams usually recognize what they're doing at this point and get themselves "unstuck." If not, others can intervene to urge continued growth. The framework presented in this book can serve as a useful reference point to guide efforts.

Purpose and Audience of This Book

The purpose of this book is to provide staff development leaders in schools and districts with some practical information about the development of professional development systems which incorporate the components of the framework described above. Written as a follow-up to *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*, it draws heavily on information from that book. However, it also extends it significantly, developing more fully the concepts and practical tools to actually develop a system promoting professional growth.

However, this is not designed as a "how-to" book for one person to "do" staff development to or for others, but rather as a guide to work with collaborative groups to design and implement systems for their own and others' professional growth. The contents represent over ten years of experience working with school staff in the development of local staff development systems. Because of our continued involvement, we've been able to modify materials and activities; toss out ones that didn't work; refine those that did; and continue to develop still newer and more effective strategies. The materials, strategies, and tools presented in this guide have been field tested extensively in schools and districts. They are equally applicable to small and large schools and have been used successfully in both.

The audience for this book is staff development leaders in schools and districts: people who are committed to staff development and in a position to make things happen. This includes formally designated staff development coordinators and chairs of staff development teams, but may also include principals, teacher leaders, or central office administrators. The book is designed for experienced staff developers who are interested in refining an existing staff development system and for those who are just starting to develop one.

Organization and Format of the Book

We have devoted a chapter to each of the essential components of a staff development system described earlier. Each chapter begins with an overview of its contents, followed by the goals and an outline of activities. Specific activities to educate the staff further and implement each component are then described. All of the necessary readings, tools, handouts, and transparency masters needed to actually conduct each activity are included at the end of the chapter. Since school staff have limited time and resources to search for references, we have done this for you. The guide, therefore, is almost a self-contained document. In addition, we have written notes to the trainer: practical thoughts and suggestions for the application of the strategies presented.

The activities in the guide are designed carefully to reflect what we know about adult learning. They are active and interactive, drawing on new information infused throughout the guide, as well as on participant experiences. Attention to content as well as process is balanced. We present and apply information in a variety of ways, including case studies, readings, lecturettes, and focused discussion. Lecture is kept at a minimum as we believe it is limited in effectiveness. Reading and discussion are used frequently. The discussion engages the reader more deeply in the information and increases the likelihood that it will be assimilated and applied. Talking out thoughts with attentive listeners helps to shape thought as well as extend it. The content stimulates new thinking or causes a revisiting of old. As one teacher commented:

> *These articles are wonderful. [The activity] invites our responses as thinking professionals. It doesn't mean all the research is the way to do it, but the information stretches us. It's different from just being told this is the way it is and we have to follow it.*

A small group format is used in most of the activities to increase the likelihood of engagement and collegial discussion.

How to Use This Book

This guide can be used in total and in sequence to guide or train staff development groups. If you are starting to develop a system from scratch or to seriously rebuild one, it makes sense to start at the beginning. However, each chapter can stand on its own. There may be specific aspects of professional development which you feel need improvement and for which specific chapters would be appropriate. For example, a staff development group dissatisfied with the lack of variety in the training programs they had been running for their colleagues might want to educate themselves further about alternative designs for learning by using Chapter 6. An experienced team may want to evaluate their efforts by using Chapter 7. Regardless, we suggest reading the overview of all the chapters to better grasp the full framework and make informed decisions about those parts which might be most useful to you.

Knowing that success rarely follows a single prescription, encourage adaptation of materials and activities presented in this guide. We invite you to take them, try them out, change them, and create new ones. However, it's important to keep the larger picture in mind, both within the total book and within each chapter. The activities in most of the chapters – except team building and maintenance – were developed and field tested as a sequence, building on one another. Their strength lies in their cumulative effect, in part because we know that multiple strategies are usually necessary to lead to desired skills and knowledge. Be wary, therefore, of grabbing an interesting activity and using it in isolation. Each one needs to be viewed as part of a larger whole.

CHAPTER 1

Getting Started

Overview:

Getting started in staff development may mean creating a new system where there is none. It may mean rebuilding or improving an existing one. A staff development system can be initiated at the district or at the building level. Regardless, getting serious about staff development requires a champion or advocate – a person who recognizes its importance, understands that it must be a collaborative effort, and is willing and able to make it happen. Champions or advocates provide the leadership necessary to initiate the development of an integrated staff development system; they do more than dabble in an occasional activity. They not only value staff development but have a vision of what it can be and fight for it. They find necessary resources and garner support from staff and central administration. Champions are often administrators, but not always. Knowledgeable and influential teachers may mobilize the energy and commitment of others who have the authority to make things happen.

Some advocates of staff development are highly knowledgeable about both the content and processes of successful staff development. Others aren't, but have enough knowledge to believe deeply in it and know where to learn more. They recognize the importance of continued education for themselves as well as for others and actively seek resources for it. They also recognize that knowledge about staff development should not be the province of a few "expert" staff developers; they work hard to share and develop the knowledge base with the rest of the staff. They understand that knowledge is stimulating, empowering, and can become an incentive for involvement in staff development planning and action. Persons who withhold and control knowledge and "do" staff development to others are not champions.

This knowledge comes in handy when presenting a case for staff development to administrators or board members who have not yet embraced staff development as the advocates have. These decision makers need to be educated and their support obtained. Champions do this.

In addition to securing support for staff development, champions provide the leadership to: (a) assess the district's readiness for change, (b) form a design team, (c) diagnose current staff development practices, and (d) continue to educate the decision makers about successful staff development. These activities are all part of "Getting Started."

Assessing Readiness for Change

Before initiating the development of a system for staff development, it's important to assess current conditions in the school(s) which might affect its success. Staff development means change. It may mean dramatic rethinking of values and behaviors, or simply a subtle refinement of existing practices. Regardless, it involves change. Because it does, an assessment of a school or district's readiness for change is an important first step. Conditions which matter include such things as accessibility of support and resources, internal press for change, stability of staff, and the spirit of risk taking.

Figure 1 is a list of specific indicators of each of these conditions. Review of the list will indicate to what extent these conditions are met in a particular setting. We know that rarely are these conditions all met, and it is not necessary that they are in order to initiate the development of a staff development system. Staff development can, in fact, be a vehicle for turning around many negative and seemingly immutable forces (e.g., low morale, staff resistance to change, time, turnover). However, the combined effects -- or absence -- of such conditions need to be heeded. Administrative support, the number of substantial innovations currently being undertaken, and the degree of stress the staff is experiencing are particularly important considerations. Lack of the former and an overload of the latter can lead to an unwinnable situation with even the best leadership. The development of a staff development system requires leadership, support, energy, and time. One needs to be realistic about the timeliness of its development.

One of the surest ways to develop readiness for professional growth is through education. As staff become aware of what staff development *can* be rather than what it often is, old stereotypes crumble and new visions and hopes develop. Knowledge empowers, stimulates thoughts about new possibilities, and enhances staff interest in being involved in the development of a staff development system. In one large suburban school, over half of the staff volunteered to be on a design committee for staff development *after* spending a half day being "educated" through an interactive series of activities which developed their interest in reading, thinking, and talking about staff development. Staff development had a terrible reputation in the school, the half-day workshop was mandated and staff were initially unhappy about being there. However, the principal, a "champion" of staff development, wanted *all* staff to become aware of a newer, positive vision of what staff development *could* be before determining their own interest in being involved. It was a very successful strategy.

Forming a Design Team

A critical step in developing a system for staff development is determining who should assume this responsibility. It's a question not often asked, resulting in a preponderance of staff development systems designed only by administrators, with limited ownership by staff and a limited vision. To be most effective, staff must be involved from the start, with a collaborative leadership team responsible for designing or redesigning the structure of the system. Such a "design" team may be an existing group such as a staff development committee or the administrative team with added teacher representation. Another possibility is a group composed of chairs from existing groups such as

Figure 1
Conditions of Readiness to Change

Cluster 1: Accessibility of Resources and Support

1.1 Extent and kind of technical knowledge needed to implement the change.
1.2 Availability of technical knowledge within the school.
1.3 Accessibility of technical knowledge and expertise outside the school.
1.4 Availability of financial resources.
1.5 Support from key administrators in the district.

Cluster 2: Internal Press for Change

2.1 Proportion of individuals who are dissatisfied with the present situation.
2.2 Proportion of individuals who value the proposed target.
2.3 Proportion of individuals who have confidence that the proposed change will bring benefits.

Cluster 3: Stability of the Staff Undergoing Change

3.1 Proportion of turnover of staff.
3.2 Commitment of key administrators to remaining in current positions for the early stages of the change.
3.3 Proportion of individuals attempting other changes.
3.4 Proportion of the staff experiencing stress due to the complexity of the school organization.

Cluster 4: Spirit of Risk Taking

4.1 Proportion of individuals who are willing to risk new action on behalf of the school.
4.2 Willingness of key administrators to make reciprocal changes in their behavior.
4.3 Presence of leadership.
4.4 Proportion of individuals willing to undergo training in new skills and behaviors.
4.5 Proportion of individuals experiencing stress, anxiety, or threat, regardless of the source.

Adapted from an instrument by J. Pascarelli, Northwest Regional Laboratory curriculum committees. Or it might be a newly formed group of staff representing all schools and the community.

Regardless of how the group is formed, three primary criteria should be considered in determining group membership: relevance, expertise, and jurisdiction (Owens, 1970). Relevance refers to including those who will be most affected by decisions made in the staff development system. This obviously means that teachers, as well as other staff, must be involved. Expertise refers to those having expert knowledge in the area of the decisions. We prefer to focus on educating *everyone* so all members of the team become "expert" staff developers. Jurisdiction refers to those who have the authority to carry out the decisions. Administrators and teachers are thus working together. A fourth criterion to consider is influence within the system, regardless of the individual's position. This may mean including certain teacher leaders or community members.

Jurisdiction is a particularly important consideration. Team members collectively or individually must have, or have access to, necessary authority to carry out what is planned. If they don't, the team's efforts may be an interesting exercise at best, but ultimately a futile one and a waste of everyone's time.

Many staff development advocates encourage the involvement of all interested persons on a design team. In one rural school district, the superintendent extended an open invitation to his staff to attend a retreat and work with the existing district staff development team in rebuilding their staff development system. Although only three additional teachers actually attended the design session, a sincere belief in collaboration was clearly conveyed and heard by staff. If the process for developing a staff development system is carefully planned and structured (as presented in Chapter 3), the added numbers are not a problem and, in fact, greatly contribute to the quality of the design. At another school, for example, a 21-member team worked effectively and efficiently to design a staff development system for their school. An obvious advantage of open membership is the added ownership which results.

The design team is an ad hoc group responsible for designing the system, soliciting approval for it, and getting it started. It dissolves once the system is operational, and other groups assume leadership roles.

Diagnosing Current Staff Development Practices

An assessment of the current status of staff development is a useful starting activity for the design team. It's important to know what is, before designing what should be. Such a review provides the opportunity to highlight the strengths of current practices as well as the weaknesses. It also provides some baseline information against which changes and progress can be measured over time.

"Diagnosing Staff Development," a tool included at the end of this chapter, reflects knowledge about successful staff development and provides a framework and vision for what a staff development system might look like. Successful practices relative to a climate for staff development, assessment and goal setting, designs for learning, and evaluation are presented as part of an integrated system. Such a tool can be used to educate staff at the same time that it diagnoses current practices. It can be used annually for a check on the health of a staff development system, leading to plans for continued growth.

One process for using the tool with a group is:

1. Participants read and individually complete "Diagnosing Staff Development."
2. Form pairs. Pairs share responses and rationales for their choices. Where perceptions differ, they give specific examples to support their choices.
3. Pairs identify all areas in high need for improvement, prioritizing the top three. They identify the three greatest strengths of their current staff development efforts.
4. Pairs report out. Their responses are grouped by the categories of climate, management, assessment, program design, and evaluation.
5. Participants form task forces to more deeply examine, evaluate, and plan for action regarding each of the major components of staff development.
6. Each task force:
   - ☐ Identifies a group historian and documenter, a group task master, and a spokesperson.
   - ☐ Quickly compares ratings for each item within the category.
   - ☐ Cites specific evidence supporting its responses.
   - ☐ Identifies those items needing improvement. (Refer also to priority problems identified earlier by the whole group.) They discuss probable causes and identify possible solutions.
   - ☐ Develops a specific action plan for improvement (what, when, where, who, etc.).
7. Task forces report out:
   - ☐ A brief summary of their discussion (three minutes maximum).
   - ☐ The highlights and lowlights of the year relative to their category (if this is a progress check, rather than an initial diagnosis).
   - ☐ Their recommendations to reinforce the positives and improve the negatives.

   Discuss and modify as appropriate.
8. As a group, participants agree on a specific plan for next steps.

Educating the Decision Makers about Successful Staff Development

If education of the staff has not been initiated before the formation of a design team, it certainly should be after the group has been established. Knowledge is as critical to the success of the implementation of staff development as it is to the design. Decision makers must be informed to make good decisions. Because of its importance, we have devoted a separate chapter to it: Educating the Decision Makers. The activities presented in this chapter are designed to stimulate thinking about staff development and extend knowledge about successful practices. They may be used with the entire staff or just the design team.

We know of no one formula for getting started in the development of a system for staff development. Conditions of readiness will vary, as will the leadership, the initiative for change, and the decision makers. Getting started may mean starting from scratch or rebuilding an existing system. Differences aside, common requirements for the initiation of a staff development system include a champion or two -- persons who believe in collaborative decision making and are successful, educated decision makers.

Case studies of how two very different districts "got started" are included at the end of this chapter. One process for using these with a group is:

1. In triads, ask participants to read the case studies. Discuss common elements, similar conditions that led to favorable outcomes. Choose three most critical ingredients for getting started.
2. Chart responses and discuss.

Reference:

Owens, Robert G. (1970). *Organizational Behavior in Schools.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

CHAPTER 2

Educating the Decision Makers

Overview:

The quality of a staff development system is determined by the quality of the decisions that drive it. And quality decisions mean informed decision makers. When we talk about "decision makers," we refer to all those who make or help make decisions and take action regarding staff development. This, obviously, includes people on a design team or other official staff development groups. It could also mean an entire staff. The more people with knowledge and an expanded vision of staff development, the better.

The importance of continued education of responsible parties in a support system cannot be overemphasized. A substantial body of knowledge about conditions and practices that lead to professional growth is available, and this knowledge should guide staff development efforts. Too often teachers are thrown into new, decision-making roles without knowledge and support. If their ensuing decisions are poor ones, it adds to the conviction of some that teachers should have limited decision-making power.

Information and skills which are important for staff developers include:

- ☐ effective staff development practices
- ☐ alternative approaches to professional development
- ☐ planning processes
- ☐ available resources
- ☐ team-building skills

Persons new to decision making for professional development are usually unfamiliar with the area and start off with a limited "workshop mentality." Such a view is unlikely to lead to the kinds of professional cultures and practices we'd all like to see. Their vision needs to be expanded. The design team and other responsible parties should be familiar with principles of effective staff development and alternative approaches to professional growth. Time is too scarce to be spent on activities that will not make a difference. Likewise, there is no need to reinvent the wheel. Research and sound practice have contributed much knowledge and many strategies that can and should be drawn on in designing a new system or improving an old one.

Information and assistance relative to a group's responsibilities and common planning processes are also frequently needed. For example, knowledge of a variety of assessment methods would enable a group responsible for assessment to make better decisions about tools to use. Similarly, a staff development team responsible for planning programs to respond to priority needs should know about key elements of good system design as well as available resources which might be used.

One also cannot assume that people know how to work together and make thoughtful decisions, particularly if isolation has been the norm. Collaboration is hard and messy work, and often quite fragile. Training in team-building skills is usually needed.

At the start of the design process, participants need time for reading, discussion, and reflection about what successful staff development looks like and *possible approaches that might be used*. Structured activities to identify their assumptions about professional growth, to define terms, and to creatively paint a vision of an ideal system are particularly useful in refining and expanding a team's knowledge and thinking. Team-building activities develop a common language among staff that helps them to talk and think more deeply about what they are doing. This process of educating, reeducating, and building norms of collegiality is never ending and should consciously be built into the agendas of staff development groups. It is equally important for persons who later become involved in the implementation of the staff development system.

This chapter describes a variety of activities to educate decision makers about effective staff development practices. Activities involving the processes of needs assessment, program design, evaluation, and team building are included in following chapters. Information relative to alternative approaches and identification of resources is included in Chapter 5 on program design.

Goals for This Chapter:

- ☐ to stimulate thinking about staff development – what it is and what it can be
- ☐ to extend knowledge about effective staff development practices and about conditions necessary for professional growth to become an integral part of the workplace

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Identifying Beliefs about Professional Development (30 minutes)

Activity 2: School Improvement Through Staff Development (90 minutes)

Activity 3: Learnings from Research on Staff Development (60-120 minutes)

Activity 4: Examining Beliefs about Staff Development (30-45 minutes)

Activity 5: Critical Attributes of Successful Staff Development (30-45 minutes)

Activity 6: Self Assessment and Identification of Critical Attributes for Improvement (30-45 minutes)

These activities can be used in various combinations. We have found, however, that this particular sequence – moving from a personal examination of beliefs, to the findings from a number of research studies, to a comprehensive synthesis of the research -- is especially effective. This information provides a rich foundation for the development of a local mission and guidelines for professional growth, addressed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 2, Activity 1

Identifying Beliefs about Professional Development

Time Required: 30 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to stimulate thinking and discussion regarding individual beliefs about staff development

Materials:

- ☐ Reading:

  Roland Barth. "Staff Development," *Run School Run*, Harvard University Press, 1980.

- ☐ Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

This can serve as a wonderful opening activity. It engages people immediately and serves as a springboard for an examination of personal beliefs about professional development. It can also stretch people's vision of what staff development *is*, beyond a workshop or training. Beliefs drive behavior, but people often are unable to articulate them. Looking at the beliefs of someone else can help bring your own into focus. The intent is to get people thinking, regardless of whether they agree or disagree with Barth. Use of small groups of two to three participants assures that everyone is involved. While any article can be used, this particular one can be a good starting point because it:

1. presents a portrait of a real school to which many teachers can relate and presents some practical ideas that could be implemented elsewhere;
2. is written in a language that makes sense to most teachers;
3. presents some viewpoints that are likely to be controversial, stimulating thought and discussion; and
4. strengthens the readers' sense of their own beliefs.

This discussion about beliefs sets the stage for more focused work later on mission and guiding beliefs (see Chapter 3, Activity 2).

Process:

1. Prior to this discussion, ask participants to read the chapter by Roland Barth.

2. Present the tasks and explain the rationale.
3. Form groups of three (triads).
4. Within the triads, participants identify Barth's beliefs about staff development and discuss whether they agree or disagree, and why. Chart responses; keep a running list.
5. Participants identify and star the one belief they most strongly agree with and the one they disagree with.
6. Groups report out their choices and rationales for them.

Chapter 2, Activity 2

School Improvement through Staff Development

Time Required: 75 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to extend knowledge about effective staff development

Materials:

- ☐ ASCD videotape, "School Improvement through Staff Development"

Trainer's Notes:

This videotape can serve as either a good starting point for discussion or for a continuation of the discussion of staff development. It is particularly good with new staff development groups. It presents a variety of perspectives on staff development, including case studies from real schools, and uses a different medium for presenting information and inviting thought.

Synopsis of video:

"School Improvement through Staff Development"

Content: Through conversations between Dennis Sparks and principals and teachers involved in change, this videotape explains the importance of systematic school improvement; tells how to plan for long-term change, training, implementation, and maintenance; emphasizes the need for involving staff members in collaborative planning and developing supportive leadership through training; describes the advantages of school-based improvement efforts; and recognizes teachers as the most important resource in education.

Audience: Principals, superintendents, board of education members, central office staff. Also appropriate for teachers and other building-level staff, and especially useful for consultants who work with schools.

Featured Educator: *Dennis Sparks*, Executive Director, National Staff Development Council, Dearborn, Michigan.

Length: 33 minutes

Format: 3/4" videocassette, 1/2" Beta or VHS

Price: $225 for ASCD members, $260 for nonmembers

Rental: $50 for five days

Preview: $30 for two days

Available through:

ASCD Order Processing
125 North West Street
Alexandria, VA 22314-9870

Process:

1. View videotape.
2. Ask participants to discuss within triads: What information supports Barth's beliefs? Contradicts?
3. They add to their list of beliefs, identifying the *two* beliefs or ideas likely to have the most impact on their schools and on teaching.
4. Groups report out their choices and rationales for them.

27

Chapter 2, Activity 3

Learnings from Research on Staff Development

Time Required: 60-120 minutes

Purpose:

☐ to extend knowledge of research on successful staff development through the findings from a variety of research studies

Materials:

☐ Transparency:

Directions for a Jigsaw on What is Staff Development

☐ Readings:

Tesfatsion Dalellew and Yvonne Martinez. "Andragogy and Development: A Search for the Meaning of Staff Development," *The Journal of Staff Development*, Summer 1988.

Thomas Guskey. "Staff Development and the Process of Teacher Change," *Educational Researcher*, May 1986.

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers. *Student Achievement Through Staff Development*, Longman, Inc., 1988.

Linda Lambert. "The End of Era of Staff Development," *Educational Leadership*, September 1989.

Susan F. Loucks and Patricia Zigarmi. "Effective Staff Development," *Educational Considerations*, Winter 1981.

"Schools Where Teachers Learn: Promising Directions for Staff Development," *The Harvard Education Newsletter*, July 1986.

Terry G. Wildman and Jeffery A. Niles. "Essentials of Professional Growth," *Educational Leadership*, February 1987.

☐ Newsprint and markers

☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

This activity provides a structured opportunity for people to read, think, and talk about professional development – something staff rarely do in the complex and busy world of schools. It extends knowledge and stimulates good collegial thinking and discussion. As one teacher commented:

> *This activity is wonderful. It invites our responses as thinking professionals. It doesn't mean all the research is the way to do it, but the information stretches us. It's different from you just telling us we need to follow it!*

The concluding task – developing a portrait of staff development -- serves as a synthesizer, combining information read with prior experiences. It draws on creative and visual abilities of staff and it's also fun.

The articles that can be used for this activity are numerous and growing rapidly. Criteria for selection should include:

- diversity of findings and points of view
- understandable language
- diversity of sources (i.e., journals) and researchers
- similarity in length

Diversity is particularly important. Collectively, the articles should heighten participants' understanding of the scope of staff development and indeed expand their vision of what it can and should be.

The articles we've identified here meet these criteria. We have used them successfully with many staff development groups, both experienced and inexperienced.

If at all possible, the articles should be assigned and distributed in advance, to allow for more thoughtful reading. Group time is then shortened and devoted to discussion with peer "experts", the teaching of home teams, and the development of group portraits.

Process:

1. Review the purpose of the activity. Explain what a Jigsaw[1] is. The Jigsaw activity is a cooperative learning strategy that allows participants to become experts in a particular aspect of the training topic and then to teach that aspect to others in their group. The advantage of using the Jigsaw is that it provides a good way for participants to learn new content and an opportunity to reinforce that learning by teaching the content to others.

   In the Jigsaw, participants are divided into Home Groups and Expert Groups. In one variation of the activity, each member of the Home Group is assigned a different article on a common topic. The Home Groups then split into new groups -- Expert Groups consisting of all those who were assigned a common article. In the Expert Groups, members discuss what they've read, highlight major points, cite examples, and discuss how they will teach the material to their

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[1] This description of the Jigsaw is adapted with permission from C. Moffett and C. Warger, *Human Resource Development Program Handbook*, ASCD, Alexandria, VA, 1988.

Home Group. After a designated period, the Home Group reconvenes, with each member teaching the rest what he/she has learned.

Figure 1 illustrates the structure and sequence of the Jigsaw activity. In this example, there are four Home Groups of four members each. Each Home Group member is assigned a number from one to four. Then, all the "ones" form a new Expert Group; all the "twos" do the same, and so on. The Expert Groups meet and discuss the reading. They then return to their original Home Group to share their learnings and discuss implications for their work.

This experiential learning activity draws on the knowledge participants bring to the training, promotes shared responsibility for learning, provides new feelings of expertise, and shifts the status of expert from trainer to learner.

Figure 1

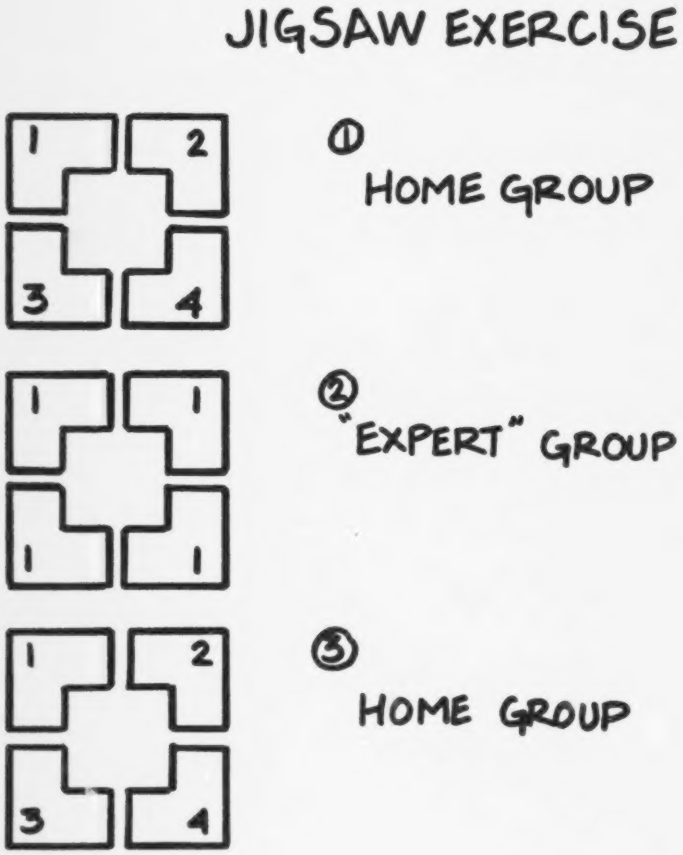

Figure from Moffett and Warger.

2. Form Home Groups of four (see transparency).
3. Assign a different article to each person in each group, or have them self-select.
4. Participants read independently.
5. Form homogeneous or Expert Groups of readers of each article. Discuss and identify:
   - ☐ major ideas the author presents
   - ☐ the most significant points
   - ☐ experiences which support or refute the points presented in the article

   Have participants develop a one-page "crib sheet" (a summary or visual of key points) to use when they "teach" their peers in their Home Groups.
6. Return to Home Groups. Experts teach their peers about their article. They discuss similarities and dissimilarities.
7. Home Groups then create a "portrait" (written, visual, or both) of what staff development is, incorporating the information read and discussed in the jigsaw.
8. Groups present portraits to the whole group.

Chapter 2, Activity 4

Beliefs about Staff Development

Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to publicly express beliefs about staff development and to listen to those of others

Materials:

- ☐ Four pieces of paper labeled "STRONGLY AGREE," "AGREE," "DISAGREE," and "STRONGLY DISAGREE"

Trainer's Notes:

This activity requires people to take a stand and go public with their beliefs, creating open agendas rather than hidden ones. It is the time to express one's own views, and also to really listen to others. The importance of doing both should be stressed, along with the legitimacy of disagreement. This activity is revealing, as well as fun, and there are always surprises. Because it requires physical movement, it is also a good change of pace.

When leading the activity, do not cut off good discussion, but also do not allow discussion about the wording of belief statements or overly heated debate to drag out. Enough is enough, and you have to know when to call a halt.

Statements used may be drawn from those generated by the triads in earlier activities or from the list of belief statements following this activity. Six or seven statements are usually enough. Document responses to the belief statements to use later when working on a statement of mission and beliefs, as they represent the thoughts of the whole group.

Process:

1. Label four separate pieces of paper: "Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Strongly Disagree," and "Disagree," and position in four corners of the room.
2. Read a belief statement (see list for examples). Direct participants to agree, strongly agree, disagree, or strongly disagree, and move to the appropriate corner.
3. Participants then huddle with fellow believers and discuss why they are where they are.
4. Each group defends its point of view to the others and tries to win others over to its corner.
5. Repeat procedure with other belief statements.

SAMPLE BELIEF STATEMENTS

- ☐ The primary function of staff development is the improvement of instruction. Its emphasis should be on knowledge and skills directly applicable in the classroom.
- ☐ The most effective type of staff development is teachers talking with teachers.
- ☐ All staff should be involved in professional growth activities.
- ☐ The responsibility for decisions about budgets for staff development activities should rest with staff development teams.
- ☐ Diversity in schools should be encouraged.
- ☐ Formal evaluation is a powerful means for promoting professional growth.
- ☐ Social activities are a legitimate part of staff development.
- ☐ Collaboration is difficult for most administrators.
- ☐ Staff development is least effective when planned, premeditated, and deliberate.
- ☐ The school is the most strategic unit for change.
- ☐ Effective staff development programs are based on research.
- ☐ Needs assessments are a waste of time.
- ☐ Community members should be active participants on staff development teams.
- ☐ Teachers are intrinsically motivated to be involved in staff development.
- ☐ Mandates result in positive change.

Chapter 2, Activity 5

Critical Attributes of Successful Staff Development

Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Purpose:

☐ to review a comprehensive synthesis of research on staff development and consider its application to participants' own schools

Materials:

☐ Handout and Transparency:

Critical Attributes of Successful Staff Development Programs

☐ Transparencies:

Critical Attributes: 1-10

☐ Reading:

"Critical Attributes," Chapter 2 of *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development.*

☐ Newsprint and markers

☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Having done a lot of thinking, reading, and talking about their own beliefs and considering some findings from research on professional growth, it is now time for participants to pull all the information together. Chapter 2 in *Continuing to Learn* does exactly this in its recent and comprehensive synthesis of research on attributes of successful staff development. The combination of a brief "Research Says . . ." presentation, with small group discussion about what each attribute might look like in practice, deepens the participants' understanding of the information. It also leads naturally to Activity 6, self-assessment and action planning.

Process:

1. Ask participants to talk in pairs or triads (no larger!) and identify the five characteristics or conditions *most* critical to successful staff development. Chart responses.
2. Handout Critical Attributes of Successful Staff Development Programs. Using the transparencies and Presentation Outline developed from Chapter 2 in *Continuing to Learn*, present the ten critical attributes. Ask participants to

compare their list with the ten and invite comments (e.g., most important, what's left out).

3. Back in their pairs or triads, assign (or self-select) one or two critical attributes to each (depending on size of group). Each pair or triad identifies specific examples of how their attribute has been or might be demonstrated in practice. Chart responses and report out. Ask others to add to the lists.
4. Homework assignment: Read Chapter 2 of *Continuing to Learn*.

Critical Attributes of Effective Staff Development
Presentation Outline[2]

I. Introductory comments should emphasize the following points:

A. Since staff development is a personal experience shaped by the readiness of schools and teachers for change, it is impossible to delineate an ideal model. Nevertheless, researchers and practitioners have identified several characteristics that can be found in successful staff development efforts.

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Attributes of Successful Teacher Development Programs*)

B. These characteristics are not ordered nor are they tightly integrated, but the absence of any one of them has the power to sink the ship.

C. Together they support and sustain a community of learners.

II. Attributes

A. Collegiality and Collaboration

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Collegiality & Collaboration*)

1. *Staff development must be a collective effort*. Schools can't improve without people working together. Since Judith Warren Little conducted her staff development research in the early 80's, "collegiality" has become almost a byword of the profession. She concluded that staff development has "the greatest prospects for influence where norms of collegiality, continuous improvement, and experimentation are built and practiced."

2. *Collegiality* means connecting on a professional level with other staff; breaking down the isolation of teaching, developing and supporting shared values, and talking about them in the context of their daily lives – in short, providing an antidote to the negative image of the "teacher's room." It means talking about practice, planning, designing and preparing materials together, observing one another working, and teaching each other the practice of teaching. It is different from congeniality, as the focus is on teaching practice, not on social interaction.

3. Supporting *a climate of collegiality* means:

   a. Faculty know each other well.

   b. Faculty have clarified their common values and understand where they differ.

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[2] See *Continuing to Learn*, pp. 7-21, for more detail and references.

   c. Faculty have and use the skills and understanding required to support open communication.
   d. Faculty have the skills for group decision making and problem solving.
   e. Faculty see the strengths in diversity among their peers.
   f. Faculty support their colleagues who are making changes in their professional practices.

4. *Collaboration* means mutual problem solving and assistance. Effective staff development programs encourage the active involvement of teachers and administrators in pursuing improvement and in sharing expertise.
   a. Shared involvement leads to greater commitment to goals necessary for implementation of improvement activities.
   b. Collaboration also strengthens a sense of common mission and increases shared understanding and trust.
   c. Programs in which teachers share and provide assistance to each other are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs in which each teacher does separate work.

B. Experimentation and Risk Taking

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Experimentation and Risk Taking)*

1. Teaching is complex. A common myth is that teaching is commonplace, easy-to-learn, and does not require special training. This ignores the complexity of teaching real kids in imperfect contexts. The classroom is a living laboratory, requiring constant experimentation, especially when trying something new. Good teachers constantly adjust their techniques and goals when they work with kids.
2. The ability and willingness to take the risks necessary to teach well demands a trusting environment for learning. Trying something new usually means discomfort. Bruce Joyce observed you'll get worse before getting better. Madeline Hunter speaks of the importance of "creative floundering." Trying something new often means experiencing discomfort. Teachers need to feel comfortable with their discomfort, to know that they will be supported in their own growth.
3. Teachers need to find support in failure as well as success, to recognize that we often get worse before getting better, and that it takes time, effort and much practice before becoming graceful.
4. It takes time, effort, and practice to become graceful.

C. Use of Available Knowledge Bases

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Use of Available Knowledge Bases)*

1. We know a lot about good teaching and learning. There is now an articulated body of knowledge, nonexistent ten years ago, that is important and useful. It is documented in research and validated through exemplary programs and practices.
2. Good staff development takes advantage of this knowledge.
3. Unfortunately this knowledge base does not often reach the classroom.
4. The knowledge base, however, should not be used to define how all teachers should behave nor as a cure-all for perceived deficiencies in practice. As Zumwalt (1986) cautions, "The potential of research to improve education comes not from generating rules of practice but from informing the deliberations of teachers and encouraging similar inquiry from them."
5. Knowledge promotes curiosity and also disciplined inquiry. It can serve as a stimulus for reflection, discussion, and improved practice and can yield new challenges and insights.
6. While teachers prefer training which is practical, good staff development presents both the theoretical and research rationale, in addition to the nuts and bolts of what is to be learned.

D. Participant Involvement

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Participant Involvement*)

1. We see a lot of staff development carried out *in spite of* participants; activities are "laid on" and "done to" teachers. They are rarely effective. Teachers must be involved with administrators as planners as well as participants in professional growth activities.
2. Participation results in participants having a greater investment in school improvement and their own and others' continued growth.
3. Good staff development engages participants in as many decision points as possible, while acknowledging that everyone can't and shouldn't be involved in all decisions. Planning and evaluation responsibilities have to be spread out among staff, involving those who really want to be involved.
4. Administrators should consider released time or reduce responsibilities for those who play major planning, implementation, and evaluation roles.
5. Places where participants should be involved:
   a. Needs assessment: Collecting information from participants about their needs and interests.
   b. Setting goals

c. Planning activities/strategies: Selecting programs, trainers, and strategies.

d. Implementing activities/strategies:

(1) Delivering program services/activities, i.e., as mentors, trainers, coaches

(2) Participating in training and other supporting/related activities

(3) Selecting in what and how much they will be involved, as much as is feasible

c. Evaluating: clarifying goals and success indicators, designing evaluation studies, developing methods of information collection, collecting and supplying information, analyzing information, and reporting learnings.

f. Decision making

E. Time to Participate and Practice

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Time to Participate and Practice*)

1. Time is regarded by many as the biggest obstacle and the most precious resource in schools.
2. If we're going to get serious about professional growth, we must find time.
3. It takes time to learn: to watch, read, reflect, experiment, practice, store ideas, solve problems, coach, and be coached. It doesn't happen over night.
4. There are three issues related to time.

a. Teachers need *released time (student-free time)* to participate in staff development activities, i.e., to be trained, practice, receive feedback, reflect, share ideas and problem solve, adapt new skills to unique student needs, etc.

b. Teachers need *time to perfect new skills and strategies.* New skills are not perfected immediately. It takes time to watch, practice, commit to changes and work them smoothly into one's routine. It takes time to become graceful and natural -- time which is measured in weeks, months, even years. Studies indicate that it often takes three to five years for changes to begin to show results.

c. Teachers need to be *protected from over-innovation.* Constant introduction of new programs, change for the sake of change, instability in goals, staff, or funding; all create a climate where new ideas come and go, nothing takes root, and teachers experience cynicism and frustration. A good staff development program balances the infusion of new ideas with time to effectively implement and institutionalize the approaches which have already been introduced. Time for specific staff development programs must be protected, with staff working on a reasonable number of priorities at any given time.

F. Leadership and Sustained Support

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Leadership & Sustained Support*)

1. Leadership and visible sustained support from key school leaders, usually administrators, is critical to the success of staff development efforts. A grassroots approach without administrative support won't survive over time.
2. Administrators have the power to adopt innovations, mandate them, finance them, and institutionalize them. These activities are necessary but not sufficient; what is needed in addition is sustained assistance and support.
3. It takes a lot of work to lead and support good programs. A good plan is to share the responsibility for leadership and support among central office staff, building administrators, teachers, and outside trainers or consultants.
4. Administrators need to play a number of leadership functions in the support of staff development programs:
    a. Promoting the activities
    b. Focusing the work
    c. Helping in the selection of players
    d. Participating in meetings
    e. Providing encouragement and recognition for effort and achievement
    f. Providing time and resources
    g. Incorporating the results of staff development into teacher and school evaluations
    h. Helping to select training activities
    i. Even bringing coffee and muffins
5. Necessary resources include:
    a. Human and financial
    b. Materials and supplies
    c. Released time
    d. Personnel for planning, evaluating, training, coaching, and providing assistance.

6. Teachers can play leadership roles as staff development planners, organizers, evaluators, inservice instructors, observers, and coaches.
7. The more often people in the educational community can take on leadership roles, the more likely their sense of commitment and responsibility will lead to real school improvement.

G. Appropriate Incentives and Rewards

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Appropriate Incentives & Rewards*)

1. People can be rewarded in many different ways. Good staff development programs pay attention to and build in a variety of incentives and rewards.
2. Extrinsic rewards such as pay or working in a nice facility count with teachers, but intrinsic rewards count more. Teachers are motivated by opportunities to meet new people, share ideas and work together, increase knowledge and competence, and by time to think, talk, and figure out alternative teaching strategies. But their most powerful reward is seeing their students succeed.
3. Recognition, respect, and reinforcement are particularly important incentives.
4. Mastery of a new skill is also a strong reward as well as a motivator for continued use and refinement. Professional growth is in itself a reward. And probably the most powerful motivator is simply a sense of efficacy – a belief that what one does makes a difference.

H. Designs Built on Principles of Adult Learning and Change

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Adult Learning*)

1. Successful staff development programs reflect what is known about adult learning.
2. Several conditions are necessary for adult growth. They include:
    a. opportunities to try out new practices
    b. careful and continuous guided reflection and discussion about the proposed changes
    c. continuity of programs and time for significant change
    d. personal support as well as challenge during this change process

    (Both support *and* challenge are needed. Support without challenge leads to supported staff who aren't learning. Challenge without support can lead to intimidation and no growth.)

3. Training designs that support adult growth include:
   a. study of theory/rationale for teaching strategy or change
   b. observation of demonstration
   c. discussion of application
   d. practice and feedback
   e. coaching for application in work setting
4. Adult growth also requires follow-up assistance and feedback:
   a. Programs need to last for a longer period of time, and provide for follow-up help after initial training. Teachers need on-call and planned assistance from trainers/coaches.
   b. Teachers should be involved in directed practice where they can try out new behaviors, techniques, and ideas, and obtain helpful feedback. Coaching facilitates teachers' abilities to adapt new skills to the unique needs of their students. Coaching provides psychological support during the time when teachers are refining their learning; it promotes integration and transference of learning.
5. Research on the change process tells us that change is a process, not an event. It takes time -- up to five years for large-scale significant changes.
6. Change starts with the individual who has different kinds of concerns, needs and questions as the change progresses. Good planners keep the notion of changing concerns in mind as they design and implement programs.

I. Integration of Individual, School, and District Goals

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Integration of Individual, School, and District Goals*)

1. A good staff development program is like an umbrella: it takes into account all that is under its protection. It considers the goals of individual teachers as well as those of the school and the district, and it works hard to integrate these into a whole.
2. Good staff development programs avoid a piecemeal approach. Rather they are planned, with explicit efforts to integrate into broader efforts, overarching goals, the mission, or vision for the future.
3. Common organizational goals are central to effective staff development. However, the diversity and uniqueness of concerns and cultures between school buildings and staff must be acknowledged and valued.

J. Integration with Organizational Mission and Structure

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Integration with Organizational Mission and Structure*)

1. Effective staff development both fits and serves the school and district's mission. Helping a school or district realize its mission ensures staff development a key role and keeps it as a priority function of the organization.
2. Staff development is most effective when it is built into the structure of a school and district close to curriculum, instruction, and school improvement efforts. When these efforts function separately from staff development programs, resources can be wasted, overlap can occur, and participants can be frustrated by competing demands.

Chapter 2, Activity 6

Self-Assessment and Identification of Critical Attributes for Improvement

Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Purpose:

- to assess the status of participants' school(s) relative to attributes of successful staff development and to begin to consider plans for improvement

Materials:

- Handout:

  Inventory: Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Programs
- Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

Now it's time to go a step further and apply the research on successful staff development to participants' own schools. Chapter 2 of *Continuing to Learn* also serves as a useful vehicle for self-assessment. The group discussion provides an opportunity to begin to consider specific action plans to strengthen or build conditions necessary for professional growth. Splitting administrators and teachers into separate groups sometimes can be informative as well as useful, since persons in different roles often have different perspectives. It is important to be aware of these, and to use them as a basis for discussion. Such awareness can lead to an expanded understanding of one's school. Yet there may be no differences in perspectives, and it is useful to know this as well.

Process:

1. Hand out Inventory: Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Programs. Ask participants to fill it out independently.
2. Form small groups of four to six people. Split by role groups (e.g., administrator and teacher) if numbers permit. Share responses within each group, and come to a consensus on the three attributes which are the most important to work on right now, and the three least important. Discuss implications for next steps. Chart responses.
3. Groups report out what they identified, their rationale for their choices, and suggestions for next steps. Discuss.

CHAPTER 3

Designing a Collaborative Structure

Overview:

The development and maintenance of a professional environment for staff cannot be left to chance or administrative initiative alone. It is too important. The right to and the expectation of continued professional development needs to be protected as well as nurtured. A collaborative structure that is devoted to professional growth and embedded within the school organization can do this. Such a structure is public, formal, and provides the framework for the creation and sustenance of conditions necessary for continued learning. It also symbolizes a serious commitment to staff development. Without such mechanisms, improvement activities tend to be piecemeal, short term, and dependent on the energies of one or two persons. They usually cease to exist if these individuals move on to other activities or jobs. A collaborative structure assures the involvement and leadership of more than a few and increases the likelihood that growth activities will continue over time.

Although the research base on structures for professional development is relatively thin, such notables as John Goodlad, Ann Lieberman, and Bruce Joyce have spoken of its importance for years. More recently, with the rising interest in restructuring schools and the professionalization of teaching, increased attention is being paid to the notion of structures promoting improvement and professional growth. We have applied this thin research base, coupled it with our own experiences in schools, and identified three tangible elements which are critical to the development and success of a structure for improvement. They are:

- ☐ a statement of mission and guiding beliefs (relative to professional development)
- ☐ a management plan
- ☐ formal authorization

A *mission statement* refers to a statement of purpose regarding professional development. It is the vision of where you are headed and provides a direction and a basis for decision making. It is brief (one phrase), almost like a slogan, and capable of common interpretation by all members of the school or district. Accompanying belief statements further define the mission, identifying beliefs that are most important to implementing the mission. The beliefs serve as specific guidelines for action. To be meaningful and "living" -- instead of just an artifact -- the statement of mission and beliefs should be thoughtfully developed by teachers, administrators, and significant others through a participatory process that results in broad endorsement.

A collaborative *management plan* is really the core structure of a staff development system. Roles and composition of groups responsible for decision making and action regarding professional development are clearly designated. Thoughtful delineation of the responsibilities of different groups helps to reduce confusion and conflict, avoids duplication of effort, and ensures equitable and appropriate distribution of tasks and rewards. Knowing who is responsible for what also greatly improves coordination of activities.

Creative visioning of both the who and what of staff development should be encouraged. Often groups get locked into a narrow and restricted vision of what professional development can and should be. The vision of a district team planning inservice days is not only uninspiring, it limits its effectiveness. A variety of functions should be explored, as should the use of a variety of responsible groups.

Rules for group operations and membership, including replacement procedures, are also defined in the management plan. Attention to how a group works is particularly helpful with very diverse groups or with groups that are not used to working together. Since attrition is often why many staff development groups dissolve, defined replacement procedures are needed to increase the likelihood of continuity.

A plan for continued education of the responsible groups is also an important component of a management plan. Additional information, assistance, or training may be needed for the groups to carry out their roles most effectively. A plan for such assistance increases the likelihood that it will occur and that high quality decision making and planning will take place.

The basic structure of a teacher development system is usually simple in the beginning. Waiting to create the perfect system at the start means it will probably never get off the ground. The important thing is to establish some basic parameters and *do something*. Refinement of the support system can come after practice.

A written mission statement and management plan then become the basis for the *formal authorization* and support of a professional growth system by the school board and school leadership. Such support is necessary for the system to endure. Serious efforts at staff development will not get started without some degree of authorization and support, and a system will certainly not be implemented without it. If professional development is embedded in the organization of the school or district, the support structure and ensuing climate of professional stimulation and growth endures, even though the content and participants change over time. These three elements must hang together. The mission statement provides the general vision for professional growth. The management plan lays out who will implement it and how. The authorization gives license and support to do it. *And*, time spent "educating the decision makers" assures the quality of decisions and actions. All are needed for success.

This chapter includes activities to assist in the development of a structure for professional growth. The steps are:

1. Educating the design team about what a structure for staff development is, why it's important, and how to design one.

2. Developing a mission statement for professional growth and guidelines for successful practice.
3. Developing a management plan by:
    - ☐ Identifying forces supporting and inhibiting professional development.
    - ☐ Defining responsible groups.
    - ☐ Developing operating procedures for responsible groups (including composition, methods of selection and replacement, decision-making procedures, methods for running meetings).
    - ☐ Determining an action plan and timeline for designated tasks.
    - ☐ Identifying information, assistance, or training needed to most effectively carry out designated tasks, and developing a plan to acquire them.
4. Securing formal authorization and support for the system.

Goals for This Chapter:

- ☐ to educate participants about the development of collaborative structures promoting staff development
- ☐ to guide staff development design teams through the development of such structures

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Educating the Design Team About a Staff Development Structure (45-60 minutes)

Activity 2: Developing a Mission Statement and Guidelines for Professional Growth (60-120 minutes first time; return to the activity several more times.)

Activity 3: Developing a Collaborative Management Plan (1-2 days)

  Activity 3A: Force Field Analysis (45 minutes)

  Activity 3B: Definition of Responsible Groups (2-4 hours)

  Activity 3C: Small Task Force Work (2-3 hours)

  Activity 3D: Time (30-45 minutes)

Activity 4: Securing Support and Formal Authorization

Chapter 3, Activity 1

Educating the Design Team about a Staff Development Structure

Time Required: 45-60 minutes

Purpose:

- to learn about the key elements of a structure for professional growth, why it's important, and how to design one
- to expand the vision of what a professional development system might be

Materials:

- Handout and Transparency:

  Key Elements of a Staff Development Structure

- Handouts:

  Background Readings on Mission Statement, Management Plan, and Formal Authorization and Support

  Designing a Staff Development Structure

- Transparency:

  Designing a Staff Development Structure

- Readings:

  "Developing a Professional Development Program," Chapter 3 of *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development.*

  "Building a Foundation: A Case Study," Chapter 5 of *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development.*

- Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

The information in this activity can provide a framework for what might otherwise be viewed as an amorphous or overwhelming task. Information about the nature of a staff development structure is presented as are the basic steps to develop one. It can also prompt more "creative visioning" of what a professional growth system could be, rather than simply reconstructing what it often is. To make best use of team time, reading of Chapters 3 and 5 in *Continuing to Learn* should be assigned outside of the meeting.

Alternatives to group discussion of the readings on the three elements (steps #3 and #4) include a smaller jigsaw activity, with each person in a triad responsible for reading about and teaching a different element, or everyone reading all of the readings and then talking about them in small groups. Regardless of the process, it is important for everyone to become familiar with each of the elements, talk about them with colleagues (to absorb the information and develop a common language), and apply the information to current conditions. Discussion about why each element is important and what currently exists is particularly important. If the elements are not valued, then action toward developing them will be hollow and shouldn't be taken. If a structure or parts of one already exist and are alive and well, then they shouldn't be reinvented. Often parts of a structure *do* exist but are outdated or are only artifacts. It's important to know this before moving on.

Step #6, summarizing the importance of each element and how it is integrated, is a particularly valuable concluding activity. It gives meaning to each of the structural elements (and more) within a larger framework and integrates the steps in developing a structure. It is both simple and powerful.

Process:

1. Ask participants to read "Developing a Professional Development Program," Chapter 3 in *Continuing to Learn*.
2. Introduce *Key Elements* of a structure promoting staff development. Use Handout and Transparency: Key Elements of a Staff Development Structure.

   ☐ By structure we mean a formal framework within the school and/or district organization that protects and promotes the right and expectation of continued professional development. It is public, formalized, and symbolizes a serious commitment to the growth of staff.

   ☐ Without such a structure, staff development tends to be short-lived and dependent on one or two energetic individuals who do everything. If they leave, everything comes to a halt.

   ☐ Before jumping into "doing" a staff development system, participants must be clear about what the structure is.

   ☐ There are three key elements:

   Mission statement and guiding beliefs. The mission statement refers to a statement of purpose for staff development. It is not the mission for the school, though if one exists, the staff development mission should reflect the larger mission. The guiding beliefs represent shared beliefs about successful staff development that should guide all efforts.

   A collaborative management plan. This is really the core of a staff development structure. In it responsible groups, their functions, operating procedures, and timelines are clearly defined.

Formal authorization and support. If staff development isn't formally authorized then you're just tinkering. The mission statement and management plan are concrete and visible products which can be authorized.

3. Small Group Discussion:

   Break into small Expert Groups. Assign each group one of the three elements and distribute *reading material* on that element. Each group reads and discusses the information, responding to the following questions:

   - ☐ What does this element look like? (What does it mean?)
   - ☐ Why is it important?
   - ☐ What currently exists in our school/district?

4. Large Group Discussion:

   - ☐ What is our mission/purpose for working on professional development?
   - ☐ What structures already exist?
   - ☐ Who currently decides about staff development? Who should?
   - ☐ What formal authorization already exists? What should?

5. Review and highlight steps to develop such a structure. Use presentation outline, handout, and transparency for "Designing a Staff Development Structure."

6. Refer back to the transparency listing the steps. Point out the importance of each one and how they must all be considered.

   Note that school systems often attend to #1 (collaborative team), or at least form a central committee of some sort. They then want to jump to #6 and "do it" without defining what the "it" is. They end up spinning wheels, sometimes for years.

   - ☐ #3 (mission) provides a general vision and guidelines of where a school or district is headed.
   - ☐ #4 (management plan) gives specific direction as to who will do it and how it will happen.
   - ☐ #5 (authorization) gives license and support.
   - ☐ #2 (education) assures quality. You can have a collaborative, formally authorized structure doing mediocre things if attention isn't paid to continually educating the decision makers.
   - ☐ Emphasize that all of these parts must be considered.

7. For homework have participants read "A Case Study," Chapter 5 in *Continuing to Learn*. Ask them to consider and discuss implications for a professional development structure in their school or district.

Designing a Staff Development Structure:
Presentation Outline

How Do You Do It?

Note: While there is nothing magical about these steps, they are seldom done!

I. Form a collaborative design team.

  A. It is often a district team.

  B. Four primary criteria to consider in selecting members:

    1. Relevance -- include those who will be most affected by decisions made in the staff development system.

    2. Expertise -- include people with knowledge (we prefer to focus on educating everyone so all become "expert" staff developers, but, at the beginning, it's critical to have someone with a solid knowledge base).

    3. Jurisdiction -- include people with power to carry out the decisions.

    4. Influence -- include people who have influence within the school community, regardless of position.

  C. This team is responsible for *designing* the structure. It may or may not be the final central group.

II. Educate the team about successful staff development practices and the development of collaborative structures.

  A. The quality of a staff development system will depend on the quality of the decisions that drive it. That means informed decision makers' time must be spent reading, thinking, and talking about good staff development.

III. Develop a mission statement and set of guiding beliefs.

  A. This follows naturally and easily from the "educating" activities.

  B. It should be written in plain language, not that of researchers; it is a short statement or slogan embracing the purpose of staff development and written in language that is easily understood.

  C. Its value is derived through the process of creating it, so the more involvement the better.

51

IV. Develop a collaborative management plan.

  A. Identify supporting and restraining forces.

    1. These form the parameters within which the system will operate.

    2. Conditions may be external (such as legislation) or internal (such as a supportive superintendent).

  B. Define responsible groups.

    1. Two parts to this: first identify the groups responsible for staff development, and then clearly define their functions. It's useful to define what are and are not their responsibilities. This is often not done and leads to confusion.

    2. This means looking at groups which currently exist (that have anything to do with staff development and school improvement) and identifying those that should be established.

    3. There are often fine overlaps. This may lead to abolishing some standing groups that no longer serve a useful function, and/or forming new ones.

    4. A common problem in many schools is there are simply too many groups. It's important to take a hard look at those that are necessary and at those that should be ongoing or ad hoc only.

    5. The most common groups are district or building staff development leadership teams. Other possibilities include grade level groups and principal assistance teams.

  C. Define operating procedures.

    1. This means determining how people will be selected (e.g., appointed, volunteer, faculty vote) and replaced; how decisions will be made (e.g., majority, consensus, administrative mandate); and how and when meetings will be run (e.g., chairs, cochairs, no chair, teacher, or administrator).

    2. It's also useful to decide how to attend to and monitor group process effectiveness.

    3. Such procedures will greatly enhance the likelihood of functional groups. It's useful to establish these *before* a crisis erupts.

  D. Determine action plan and timeline for designated tasks.

    1. When there is a sense of when things need to take place, they are more likely to be done and in a timely fashion.

E. Identify information, assistance, or training needed to carry out tasks and develop a plan to acquire it.

   1. Most groups don't pay much attention to this. However, if they did, the quality of staff development would improve considerably. Good decisions mean informed decision makers. A considerable body of information relative to staff development content and planning processes exists and should be used.

V. Secure formal authorization and support.

   A. If attention has been paid to the selection of the design team, this shouldn't be too much of a problem.

VI. Do it . . . operationalize the system.

   A. Obviously this is the most important part. A beautifully described plan is worth little sitting on a shelf.

Chapter 3, Activity 2

Developing a Mission Statement and Guidelines for Professional Growth

Time Required: 60-120 minutes the first time; returning to the activity several times

Purpose:

- ☐ to develop a unified vision of where you are headed (or mission) regarding professional development
- ☐ to identify shared values and beliefs about professional growth that can guide development efforts in school(s)

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Building a Mission Statement for Staff Development

  A Sample Staff Development Mission Statement

  Consensus (from Chapter 4, Activity 3)

Trainer's Notes:

Many staff development groups don't have defined mission statements or guiding beliefs, yet they are an important part of the professional growth structure for several reasons. A tangible mission statement, with accompanying values and definition of terms, gives meaning and direction to staff development and provides a focus for what is done, as well as what is not done. Its existence highlights the importance of continued professional development of staff. A brief, pithy mission statement is easy to grab on to, and a participatory process of development builds ownership and meaning. It also helps to operationalize the reams of literature on staff development. Reading and discussion will not mean much unless one asks: What does this mean for us, and how can we apply it? Articulated values and a mission statement help assure that such information will be acted on.

The sequence of activities presented in the previous chapter familiarizes staff with the research and knowledge base about professional development and engages them in spirited discussion about their own beliefs, as well as those of others. It sets a foundation for informed and thoughtful development of a mission of their own.

To be meaningful -- a "living" mission statement -- it must be developed by more than one or two people. The more the better, since its meaning comes from being involved in its formulation. A mission can be developed by a group of six or a group of sixty. It can be developed by a district design group and/or by building groups. It can and should be revisited and refined over time.

After developing a mission and a set of guiding beliefs, it is very important to think and talk about how it will be used and how others will be involved and informed about it. Otherwise, it will become an artifact that may look nice for show but has little use or meaning.

Before undertaking development of a mission, it is important that a group complete the processes suggested in the previous chapter. Specifically, they should be familiar with the research and knowledge base regarding critical attributes of successful staff development programs and should have engaged in some forced-choice belief activities as described in Activity 4.

Assuming that the group has discussed the knowledge base on critical attributes and has engaged in spirited discussions regarding beliefs about staff development, they are now ready to tackle developing a mission statement of their own.

Process:

1. Have participants read Building a Mission Statement for Staff Development and review the key elements of a mission statement. Highlight the importance of the accompanying value or belief statements to guide action.
2. Handout and have participants look closely at the sample mission statement. Ask whether the three questions (Who's it for? What do you do? Toward what end?) are answered. Are guiding beliefs identified?
3. Introduce the handout, Consensus (refer to Chapter 4, Activity 3). Highlight what consensus is and isn't. Discuss advantages and disadvantages, and why reaching consensus is important when developing a mission statement.
4. Use the Pyramid Process for Reaching Consensus, described below, to develop an agreed upon statement of mission and guiding beliefs about staff development.
   - ☐ Thoroughly introduce and discuss the task at hand. Note that this process assures maximum involvement of everyone.
   - ☐ Have each participant individually:
     - ☐ develop a mission statement that answers the three questions: Who's it for? What do you do? Toward what end?
     - ☐ identify the three to five beliefs most critical to implementing the mission
   - ☐ Ask participants to form pairs. They share their responses and come to consensus about a mission statement and guiding beliefs that satisfy them both. They may adopt one or the other, or create a new one.
   - ☐ Each pair is then joined by another pair, and the consensus-building process begins again. The size of the consensus-building group grows until one statement is developed with which all participants agree.

- ☐ Throughout the process, remind participants to:
    - ☐ identify beliefs that really speak to them and are heart-felt
    - ☐ be brief and use language all will understand
    - ☐ try hard to jump outside of themselves and try on others' points of view
    - ☐ think hard about what they won't let go of and what they can

NOTES: This process is seldom completed in a day. Often it is possible to arrive at two or three versions in the first session. People need some time to think about the different versions before trying to reach a consensus on one. Time away is particularly useful if an impasse is reached. Often three or four sessions are necessary to complete the task.

If the group appears to be stalemated -- unable to agree on one version or another -- the discussion and negotiation process can be speeded up by using a "fish bowl." The opposing groups each select one or two spokespersons for their point of view. The spokespersons come to the front of the room and continue negotiations in front of the rest of the group; thus, a "fish bowl" is formed. An empty chair or two should be provided for the observers to temporarily join the "fish bowl" group whenever they want to make a particular point or put forth a particular argument.

Groups often try to expand their list of beliefs beyond five. Don't let them. The limitation forces them to focus on those that are truly the most important and indeed the driving forces.

5. Write up and copy the mission statement and guiding beliefs as reminders to participants and information for others. Note that a mission only guides action if those who act know about it and what it means. Remind participants to use their mission statement often. Many use it as a logo on letterhead, brochures, and correspondence.

6. Discuss:
    - ☐ How will they use the mission statement and values?
    - ☐ How will they make it a "living" mission?
    - ☐ How will they involve and inform others?
    - ☐ Develop an action plan and do it.

7. Have participants develop an action plan and implement it.

Chapter 3, Activity 3

Developing a Collaborative Management Plan

Time Required: 1-2 days

Purpose:

- to develop a collaborative plan to govern and manage a professional development system

Activity 3A, Force Field Analysis

Time Required: 45-60 minutes

Purpose:

- to determine parameters within which a staff development system will operate

Materials:

- Handout:

  Principles for Brainstorming: The Production of Alternatives
- Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

Central to the design of a staff development program that fits the context of a given school organization is an understanding of the school system it supports. At the start of the design process, identify conditions that both support and inhibit improvement efforts in the participating schools. Such information forms the parameters within which the system will operate. Conditions may be external to the system, such as recent state legislation, or they may be internal, such as a strongly supportive superintendent. Some forces, such as a district's small size, may be both supportive and restraining.

Negative forces can be viewed as challenges to meet. For example, at the initiation of a particular improvement effort, a critical, vocal, and influential school board member was identified as a major obstacle. She was invited to serve on the school's professional development team and within a year became the chair of the group as well as its leading proponent. Both the budget and available released time increased fourfold. Involvement and knowledge led to her commitment and support.

Collaborative, open discussion about positive and negative conditions that affect a school community can deepen a team's understanding of the system. It can also uncover hidden agendas that might sabotage the program at a later point. Once uncovered, potential obstacles can be dealt with constructively. Many groups discover that there are far more forces supporting improvement than impeding it. The result is renewed hope and enthusiasm, as well as important information to be acted upon when actually designing and operating the program.

The issue of time is worth mentioning here. Lack of time is the most commonly identified restraint to professional development. We know, however, that real change in knowledge, thinking, and behavior takes time. We need to develop strategies to increase available time, or make better use of existing time. At some point in the development of a staff development program -- perhaps not at this point – time will be needed to discuss how to find time. For this reason we've included an activity on time (Activity 3D), recognizing it may also be dealt with later. When given the opportunity to do some focused problem solving on time, staff development teams almost always come up with creative, effective, and unusual solutions.

Process:

1. Handout and review Principles for Brainstorming.
2. Have participants brainstorm all the forces supporting professional growth in their district, considering school, district, community, state, and national factors. Chart responses.
3. Brainstorm restraining or inhibiting factors.
4. Brainstorm strategies to maximize supporting forces and minimize inhibitors.
5. Discuss implications for positive action. How can the negative forces be turned around? What might this suggest as they develop their structure?

Activity 3B, Definition of Responsible Groups

Time Required: 2-4 hours

Purpose:

- ☐ to identify and define groups responsible for planning and managing staff development activities

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  A Guide for Developing a Structure for Staff Development (sample and blank)

- ☐ Reading:

  "A Monograph on Staff Development," California State Department of Education.

- ☐ Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

The core of a management plan is a clear definition of who is responsible for what. There are a variety of ways to determine this. One can start by first identifying existing groups that play a role in school improvement efforts, and then expand to consider groups that don't, but should, or groups that don't yet exist, but should be established. Or, one can start by looking broadly at the array of tasks encompassed in planning and managing professional growth activities and then match them with the appropriate group or person, existing or proposed. The first approach is simpler. The danger, however, is that it can limit the vision and lock people into the existing structure, rather than expanding the view of what could and should exist. Regardless of which approach is chosen, it is important to allow time for thoughtful, collaborative discussion about the kinds of responsibilities involved in staff development, and who should assume them.

What follows is a sequence of activities to use with staff development design groups, leading to a clear articulation of responsible groups and their functions. The sequence of large and small group activities should work with any group larger than six and ensure involvement of everyone.

Process:

1. Have participants brainstorm possible tasks involved in staff development and school improvement. Chart responses.

   The intent here is to paint a broad picture of the array of tasks involved in creating an environment supporting professional growth. This activity helps to expand the group's vision of what staff development encompasses. People are often amazed at how much is involved, indeed, in planning for more than an inservice day or two.

This activity may be slow in starting. Many staff, particularly those previously uninvolved in planning staff development efforts, are not used to analyzing tasks that need to be performed. They may need examples to get going. They should be prompted to look at tasks that groups are currently doing, as well as tasks which may be imposed from outside (e.g., the state department). "A Monograph on Staff Development" can be useful to get people thinking in this direction. Responses often tend to be very general (e.g., planning). If so, prompt participants to be more specific (i.e., planning should be broken into specific tasks, such as needs assessment, goal setting, identifying resources). Urge them to be creative and to consider wishes and wants, not restricting themselves to current realities. Be sure to allow time for thinking. Do not rush in too quickly to fill silences. It may take a while for the group to warm to the task.

2. Have participants identify groups in their school or district that currently play a role in school improvement and staff development. Chart responses, identifying groups and their roles. Identify those that *could* exist but may not now.

   Prompts and examples may be necessary here, as well, to help the group think expansively and creatively. This activity helps people to become aware of the number of groups which may or may not exist. It also prods clarification of the functions of these groups and overlapping roles they may have. Sometimes several groups with similar functions exist, such as a school improvement group, a staff development committee, and a certification team. Sometimes there are no groups that perform these roles. Instead, administrators assume the responsibilities, or no one does. Whatever the case, it is important to be aware of existing conditions, as well as groups that could be established.

   If a staff development program already exists in the school(s) and the aim is to restructure it, this activity may be the most appropriate one to start with, adding a "wish list" of roles or groups that people would like to either add or delete.

3. Break the larger group into small groups of four. Refer to the tasks and groups that have just been identified. Have small groups discuss which functions or tasks are most influential, and which groups should assume them. Chart responses. Ask small groups to:

   ☐ Identify key tasks, groups, and who should be responsible for what.

   ☐ Identify the most creative idea, and the two that are likely to have the most impact.

   ☐ Report out conclusions and rationale.

   The intent of this activity is to prompt deeper thinking about the groups which should assume certain roles, without worrying about coming to closure. The small group format assures everyone's involvement. It is a more complex task than it may appear, as many roles can be differentiated with several groups assuming some degree of responsibility for the same task (e.g., assessment). The activity leads to further probing of what is encompassed in staff development planning, who should be involved, and what are the most important tasks.

This may also be a volatile activity. Some responsibilities, such as budgeting and determining professional development goals, are particularly important ones. Control over money and the "content" of staff development means influence and power. Administrators or others used to assuming these roles may be reluctant to share them. If shared decision making is an issue, as it is in many schools and districts, considerable discussion and possibly debate may be necessary. Differing viewpoints must be discussed openly and worked through. If they are not, future efforts will probably be sabotaged by disgruntled teachers or administrators.

Remind the groups to keep in mind conditions necessary for professional growth and the guidelines they developed earlier. Urge them to consider carefully which are districtwide responsibilities and which should be assumed at the building level. A tendency towards too much centralized control is common. District staff development teams can be as guilty of this as central office administrators.

4. Form a small task force to develop a rough proposal for a basic structure for professional growth, including groups and their roles.

   ☐ Build a design reflective of information generated through previous large and small group work.

   ☐ Review plans from other districts for ideas.

   ☐ Use A Guide for Developing a Structure for Staff Development (sample and blank form included).

   ☐ Present proposal to the whole group. Discuss and modify.

Once the total group has a sense of the potential scope of a staff development program, it is appropriate to form small work groups to actually rough out a basic structure. Stress that the charge of this group is to identify only the basic parameters of a structure, including who is responsible for what. The details will follow. Discuss their proposal thoroughly with the entire group and modify, if necessary. It is important that the final plan be endorsed by the whole group. The subsequent work of the task force will be built upon this basic structure.

Plans from other districts, often available through state departments or staff development councils, can provide new ideas, support for ideas the group has come up with, and confidence to proceed. Some worry that such information will restrict creativity and simply lead to duplication of someone else's plan. This is rarely the case. People may pick and choose parts of others' plans that are right for them, but inevitably they end up with something uniquely theirs, which fits the context and culture of their schools. And, if someone else's plan happens to be just right, why not use it?!

Activity 3C, Small Task Force Work

Time Required: 2-3 hours

Purpose:

- to define operational procedures for the staff development system

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Task Force Guidelines: Composition

  Task Force Guidelines: Operating Procedures

  Task Force Guidelines: Continuing Education

  Task Force Guidelines: Group Responsibilities and Timeline

  Task Force Guidelines: Budget

  Task Force Guidelines: Communication

  Task Force Guidelines: Mission and Guiding Beliefs
- Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

The determination of responsible groups and their functions is the core of a structure for professional growth. This information alone, however, is not sufficient to make the program operational. Decisions also need to be made regarding the composition of the groups, methods of selection and replacement, procedures for decision making and running meetings, and a timeline for designated tasks. Other issues to address that can contribute greatly to the effectiveness of the program include communication and continuing education of the responsible groups.

Additional issues particular to a school or schools may also warrant special attention. In one district, for example, attendance at conferences was a real issue. Staff had repeatedly raised questions about who would go to what kind of conferences, who would decide, and how much money was available. When defining their structure, a task force was formed (one of several) to address these specific questions. Similarly, the issue of money and who controls what part of the budget frequently warrants special attention. This can be a sensitive topic, but it is critical to deal with it openly.

If teacher certification is within the domain of a local staff development program, as it is in many states, then a task force may be needed to work out the details particular to that responsibility.

Task forces are an efficient and effective way to tend to these tasks and involve people in things that interest them. Small groups of interested people can develop the necessary details more thoughtfully. Plans are then shared and modified with the total group to assure everyone's involvement and support.

Some of these decisions may need to be made by responsible groups other than the design team. For example, a building staff development team may want to determine for themselves methods of selection, replacement, and decision making. The design team will need to decide which decisions should be made by other groups and which should remain with them. Regardless, they should be informed about each of the issues and be able to provide information or assistance, if necessary. They may want to establish some guidelines for each kind of decision.

Process:

1. Form small task forces. Each one is responsible for addressing one of the following areas for *all* responsible groups:
    - ☐ group composition, methods of selection and replacement, incentives for involvement
    - ☐ operating procedures, including methods of decision making and running meetings
    - ☐ continuing education plan for the responsible groups
    - ☐ group responsibilities and timeline for tasks
    - ☐ budget
    - ☐ communication
    - ☐ mission and guiding beliefs (only if more work needs to be done)
2. Review specific tasks and related information for each group as listed on Task Force Guidelines.
3. Each task force presents its plan to the total group; discuss and rework as necessary.

Activity 3D, Time

Time Required: 30 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to help participants think about the time needed to do staff development well and where that time might come from
- ☐ to develop specific strategies in schools for increasing time available for professional growth

Materials:

- ☐ Readings:

  Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers. "Low-Cost Arrangements for Peer Coaching," *Journal of Staff Development*, Spring 1987.

  Continuing to Learn, pp. 32-33.

- ☐ Newsprint and markers

Process:

1. Introduce this activity with the attribute statement from *Continuing to Learn*: Time to work on staff development and assimilate new learnings. Reiterate the importance of having time to plan, to do, and to reflect. Note that it is clear that real change in people's knowledge, thinking, behaviors takes time, and that time is not free. Time is the most commonly expressed constraint to having good staff development programs. Note that many schools and districts have dealt creatively with the issue of time without windfalls such as state monies. What we'd like them to do is to look at some creative solutions, and then share and generate some of their own.
2. Divide the group into small groups. Distribute the Joyce and Showers article and the pages of *Continuing to Learn*. Note that the article contains some ideas about how to find time for teachers to spend coaching each other, some of which are applicable to other staff development approaches as well. The book excerpt contains some general ideas. With those ideas as a beginning, the group's task is to share strategies they themselves have used or have heard about others using and then to brainstorm additional possibilities. The guiding questions are:
   - ☐ How can the number of student-free days be increased over the course of the year?
   - ☐ What time is available during the school day?
   - ☐ How might existing time be better spent and utilized for professional growth purposes?

- ☐ How can teachers get more release time during the school day?

Ask groups to record their responses and star the three most significant ideas.

3. Each group reports out what it has identified and why. Discuss the feasibility of various ideas. Identify the three top ideas.
4. Form a work group to develop a specific action plan for finding more time.

Chapter 3, Activity 4

Securing Support and Formal Authorization

Time Required: ongoing

Purpose:

- ☐ to inform people about the proposed plan and to secure their support and formal authorization of the structure

Materials:

- ☐ None

Trainer's Notes:

The mission statement, guiding beliefs, and management plan are tangible products which can and must be shared with the rest of the staff. Without their support and involvement the professional development system won't work. These tangible products also become the basis for formal authorization of the system by the school board and school leadership. Formal authorization assures that it will be embedded in the school organization and will endure over time. If the selection process for the team that designed the structure was effective, jurisdiction and support should not be a problem. The group will consist of people respected in the school community, with influence, credibility, and authority. Nonetheless, staff need to be informed and involved in discussion of the plans. Multiple ways to give and get information should be considered.

The importance of staff development and the newly designed support structure must be clearly demonstrated by people with power and influence. Staff need to know that professional development is valued, expected, and supported by the leadership. The proposed structure and the rationale behind it should be clearly presented and discussed, with particular attention to what it means to the staff. Personalizing such activities through small group or one-to-one discussion helps. A large group presentation, followed by small group discussions of the application of the plan, can be a successful strategy.

Process:

1. Have participants prepare a document describing their staff development system, including:
    - ☐ a statement of mission and guiding beliefs
    - ☐ a management plan

2. Discuss how to involve and inform the rest of the staff and other members of the school community about their proposed staff development system.
3. Participants then secure formal authorization through school board policy and expectations about continued professional development in staff contracts.

CHAPTER 4

Team Building[1]

Overview:

People do not necessarily know how to work together and make thoughtful decisions; they surely do not know how if isolation has been their norm. Collaboration is hard work, very untidy, and often quite fragile. People who are used to or prefer concrete, linear planning often experience intense frustration and impatience with a group. Letting go of one's own ideas and really listening to others' views is not easy. Nor is it easy to set group priorities and develop action plans which the whole team will carry out and support.

Training in team building can heighten a group's ability to work collaboratively, enhancing their productivity and satisfaction as they entertain and work with a variety of different viewpoints. Attention to team building is particularly useful in addressing inevitable conflict and minimizing real or imagined barriers between teachers and administrators.

Groups need time to mature. They typically go through four phases of development: forming, storming, norming, and performing. These stages, while varying in intensity and persistence, occur in a predictable sequence, with identifiable feelings and behaviors associated with each. Team members can benefit from learning to expect them, understand them, not be intimidated by them, intervene when necessary, and recognize that few things can happen overnight.

Being a team member requires very different behaviors and attitudes than does working alone. Teaming does not necessarily mean a loss of individuality. Each person remains an individual in a group, making a unique contribution from which the entire team benefits. Understanding the effects of individual behaviors on overall group functioning can enhance productivity and satisfaction.

Reaching decisions with detailed, "do-able" actions steps often presents frustrating challenges. Principles and techniques for planning and making the most of face-to-face meeting time are often overlooked by teams and committees. Members often feel that they are "spinning their wheels" and "not getting very much done." Effective team planning and action require making "hard" decisions about priorities for action, as well as planning, structuring and following up meetings so that things get decided, done, and evaluated. Often teams fail because they have too many good ideas and too few action plans to carry out the ideas. Understanding and practicing methods to prioritize and reach consensus, and putting in place operational procedures to maximize the effectiveness of face-to-face time, will raise team productivity and member satisfaction.

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[1] The authors acknowledge the work of The Regional Laboratory's Leadership Team in assembling many of the materials included in this chapter.

Goals for This Chapter:

- ☐ to increase understanding of the skills and attitudes which affect the productivity of a group and the satisfaction of its members
- ☐ to increase skill and comfort with group self-assessment processes, so that they will become a natural and important component of the work of a staff development team

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Anticipating Stages of Team Development (60-90 minutes)

Activity 2: Understanding Team Member Roles and Functions (60-90 minutes)

Activity 3: Reaching Decisions by Consensus: Techniques to Build Consensus and Establish Priorities (90-120 minutes)

Activity 4: Conducting Better Meetings (90-120 minutes)

Activity 5: Assessing Team Effectiveness (60-90 minutes)

Chapter 4, Activity 1

Anticipating Stages of Team Development

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

☐ to increase awareness of the characteristics of different stages of team development

☐ to identify the current stage of participants' team(s), and to develop a set of implications or action steps as a result of the analysis

Materials:

☐ Handouts:

Team Development Wheel

Stages of Team Development

☐ Transparency:

Stages of Team Development

☐ Readings:

Selections as desired

☐ Newsprint and markers

☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

As members of a staff development team work together, they experience changes in the way they communicate, plan, set priorities, make decisions, resolve conflicts, or share the tasks of team maintenance and operation. These changes are normal and may even be anticipated. A valuable activity for staff development teams is to periodically reflect on their current stage of development and to acknowledge the natural changes that are taking place in individual members and among members of the work group. As their understanding of and comfort with their natural developmental processes increase, so will their satisfaction with the group.

Process:

1. Distribute the handout Team Development Wheel. Ask individual participants to check off the behaviors that they have experienced in the quadrant that seems to reflect the stage that they perceive their team to be in at this time.
2. Invite participants to form small discussion groups of three to five from the same team. Ask them to compare assessments and attempt to reach consensus on their stage of team development. Some teams may be able to agree on a specific number value within a stage.
3. Reconvene the large group and take a sampling of group stages from the teams represented. Ask clarifying questions and check for understanding to assure accuracy.
4. Using a sheet of newsprint, blackboard, or overhead, review the stages of team development using the transparency and handout, Stages of Team Development.
5. Invite participants to reflect on the framework, their behaviors, and those of their colleagues. Ask them to discuss *implications* and develop a set of *action steps* that they would like to implement in their work groups. Ask them to work briefly in small groups and to summarize their discussion. Provide time for sharing of small group discussion ideas.
6. Suggest and review additional resources on the topic of stages of team development. Some of them may be from the list of selected references provided below.

Resources:

Johnson, D., and Johnson, F. (1975). *Joining Together: Group Theory and Skills.* Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Lacoursier, R. (1980). *The Life Cycle of Groups.* New York: Human Sciences Press.

Miles, M.B. (1981). *Learning to Work in Groups.* Second Edition. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Stokes, S. (1981). *School-Based Staff Support Teams.* Bloomington, IN: National Inservice Network, Indiana University.

Chapter 4, Activity 2

Understanding Team Roles and Functions

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to raise awareness of the positive and negative roles that team members may play
- ☐ to explore possible interventions when negative behaviors occur
- ☐ to analyze the roles played by team members and provide feedback to each

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Principles for Effective Teamwork

  Sabotaging the Team

  Group Task Behaviors and Roles

  Who Does What in Our Group?
- ☐ Transparencies:

  Principles for Effective Teamwork

  Sabotaging the Team

  Group Task Behaviors and Roles
- ☐ Reading

  "The Talk Machine and Other Meeting Personas," *Working Woman,* July 1984
- ☐ Newsprint and markers
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Working as a member of a team is not always easy. Most of us value our independence and take pride in being responsible for our own destiny. Joining a team, however, requires giving up a certain amount of independence and becoming a "team player" – a person who cooperates, shares, and works for team, rather than individual success.

Some regard being a "team player" negatively. They associate it with a loss of individuality. In an effective team, this is not so, rather team members are encouraged to assert their individuality and use their unique skills and talents to help the team. In an effective team the individuality and diversity of team members are assets. A team, like an orchestra, needs as much diversity as possible to provide richness, depth and clarity. And like the musicians in an exceptional orchestra, the members of an effective team try very hard to complement each other and work in unison to accomplish their task (Research for Better Schools, 1984).

There are many reasons why teams fail to live up to their own expectations or to the expectations that others hold for their performance. A lack of clarity about scope and focus, unproductive meeting procedures, limited problem-solving skills, and poor consensus-reaching and conflict management skills can all contribute to a sense of frustration and failure for team members. One of the more regrettable causes of low levels of team performance is negative personal behaviors.

In the activities which follow, team members will:

- hear about and discuss principles for effective teamwork,
- identify seven common counter-productive behaviors that individuals often exhibit in group settings,
- consider strategies for dealing with those negative behaviors, and
- identify and discuss the positive group process behaviors that contribute to task completion and job satisfaction.

Process:

1. *Principles for Effective Teamwork.* Present and discuss concepts and ideas contained in handout Principles for Effective Teamwork. Use the transparency or newsprint to highlight the main ideas.

2. *Negative Group Behaviors -- Sabotaging the Team.* Introduce this activity by explaining that there are many reasons why individuals working collectively fail to work as a team (and because of this often fail to accomplish a task). One is that individuals sometimes -- either purposely or accidentally -- are preventing the team from working. This kind of sabotage can be accomplished in various ways.

   At the top of a large sheet of newsprint, write the heading, "Sabotaging the Team -- Negative Group Behaviors." Invite participants to contribute to the list. Using handout Sabotaging the Team, supplement the newsprint list with any of the behaviors described in the handout that were not suggested by the group. Use the transparency or newsprint to highlight the main ideas.

   Close this discussion by handing out "The Talk Machine and Other Personas".

3. *Interventions for Negative Behaviors.* For each of the negative group behaviors listed by participants, identify helpful interventions that have potential for reducing or eliminating the behaviors. Some examples are:

☐ Agreeing with a part of a criticism or argument without getting hooked on it

☐ Asking for feedback about an idea or principle

☐ Asking for more specific criticism or objections

☐ Bargaining -- offering to give something up if the other person will do the same

☐ Describing specific behaviors without interpreting or judging

☐ Postponing a discussion until a time when people are less emotional, have more information, etc.

☐ Asking direct questions

☐ Expressing mixed feelings

☐ Disclosing feelings

☐ Stating intentions

☐ Sharing likes and dislikes

☐ Communicating wants and needs

☐ Listing options to choose from

☐ Choosing topics together

☐ Validating others non-verbally

☐ Using open-ended questions

☐ Quantifying wants and feelings

☐ Reflecting

☐ Validating others verbally

☐ Discussing problem behavior during group process evaluations

4. *Positive Group Task Behaviors and Roles.* Distribute the participant handout Who Does What in Our Group? and display the transparency entitled Group Roles.

   Introduce this activity by encouraging team members to be aware that there are different roles they can play to help work go more smoothly. They should try to match their skills and talents to these roles, encourage other team members to play these roles, and in so doing, help themselves and other members develop the team's productivity and effectiveness.

   Review and discuss the group task roles, referring to the handout and/or overhead.

Conclude this activity by reviewing the instructions on the Roles Nomination Form. Ask participants to complete the form by themselves, then turn to a neighbor and share their records. Wrap up with a brief large group discussion of observations and learnings.

5. *Review Selected Resources and References.* Suggest and review additional resources on this topic. Some of them may include optional participant handouts and forms.

Resources:

Dartnell Publications. *Working Together Works,* 28 minute film/videocassette. Chicago, IL: Author.

Fletcher, Winston. (1983). *Meetings, Meetings.* New York, NY: Wm. Morrow and Co., Inc.

Furtwnegler, Carol B. (1981). *Roles Played in Group Meetings.* Nashville, TN: Research and Service Institute, Inc.

Hall, Douglas T., et al. (1976). *Experiences in Management and Organizational Behavior.* Chicago, IL: St. Clair Press.

Miller, Rima. (1987). *Team Planning for Educational Leaders.* Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc.

Mumma, Frederick. *Team-Work and Team-Roles Inventory.* Bryn Mawr, PA: Organization Design and Development.

Reich, Robert B. "Entrepreneurship Reconsidered: The Team as Hero." *Harvard Business Review,* May-June 1987.

Research for Better Schools. (1984). *Guidelines for Effective Teamwork.* Philadelphia, PA: Author.

Turner, Ernie. (1985). *Intelitec Program Planning Guide.* White Plains, NY: Intelitec Management Systems.

Chapter 4, Activity 3

Reaching Decisions by Consensus:

Techniques to Build Consensus and Establish Priorities

Time Required: 90-120 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to increase understanding of the purposes for and advantages of consensus decision making, and behaviors necessary to achieve consensus
- ☐ to introduce and practice three techniques for determining priorities: pyramidal process, nominal group process, and multi-voting process

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Consensus

  The Pyramidal Process for Reaching Consensus

  The Nominal Group Process

  The Multi-voting Process
- ☐ Newsprint or overhead

Trainer's Notes:

As we become involved in participatory planning processes, we often find ourselves with a growing sense that the group is "spinning its wheels." We feel "we aren't getting anywhere." We never seem to make decisions. We are hampered because we don't know how to reach consensus on a decision.

A common misunderstanding is that consensus means that everyone agrees wholeheartedly with the decision that the group has reached. Not so. Quick and total agreement signals that the group is engaging in "group think" behaviors --agreeing just to "get on with it", or agreeing because they think the others in the group agree, when they have not checked it out or discussed the issues fully. *Consensus means that each group member fully expresses his/her issues and concerns and works with the group to arrive at a decision that is acceptable to all.* When disagreement or concerns remain, members agree to experiment with a decision for a certain period of time, receiving assurance that the group will reconsider the decision at a later time, after all have had some experience with the outcomes. All members agree to take responsibility for implementing the decision.

Often groups struggle in their discussions; they have many ideas about what they could do, but they don't seem to focus enough to select and carry out any of them. It helps to structure group discussion with strategies and techniques which lead to setting priorities, with processes which supports each person's being heard and understood. The techniques introduced in this section will provide the group with structures to both ensure thorough discussion of everyone's issues and concerns, while avoiding grandstanding, monopolizing, "beating a dead horse". The three techniques suggested below keep the discussion moving and enable the group to arrive at a satisfactory consensus on specific priorities for action.

Process:

1. Distribute Consensus handout. Using newsprint or transparency, review the essential elements of consensus. Discuss the definition of consensus, what it means and does not mean, the advantages, and the nature of the "consensus contract."
2. Introduce and practice the *Pyramidal Process* for reaching consensus, distributing The Pyramidal Process for Reaching Consensus handout. Discuss the process and its purpose. Select an appropriate task and guide the group through the process. This process works well for developing a mission or philosophy statement.
3. Introduce and practice the *Nominal Group Process* for reaching consensus on priorities, distributing The Nominal Group Process handout. Discuss the process and its purpose. Select an appropriate task and guide the group through the process. The process works well for arranging any list of items in priority order.
4. Introduce and practice the *Multi-voting Process* for reaching consensus on priorities, distributing The Multi-voting Process handout. Discuss the process and its purpose. Select an appropriate task and guide the group through the process. The process works well for arranging any list of items in priority order.

Chapter 4, Activity 4

Conducting Better Meetings

Time Required: 90-120 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to explore and apply a variety of suggestions for conducting better team meetings

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Guidelines for Leadership in Small Groups

  Benchmarks to Measure the Success of Group Facilitation

  Decision Making for School Site Councils

  Ground Rules for Meetings

  On the Value of Newsprint as a Facilitation Tool

  Strategies for Productive, Efficient Meetings
- ☐ Readings:

  "The Ten Commandments for Committees," source unknown.

  "The Best Little Meetings in the Company," *Working Woman*, July 1984.

  "The Art of Running a Meeting," *Working Woman*, July 1984.
- ☐ Newsprint and markers
- ☐ Overhead and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Good meetings don't just happen – they are planned. Preparation is the essential ingredient of effective team meetings. Effective teams work productively and efficiently by using time-saving structures, strategies, and settings for their business meetings. These include assigning specialized roles, so that everyone shares more responsibility for the success of the meeting; planning for the whole group and subgroup activity; and attending to the atmosphere, facilities, and location of the meeting. In this activity participants develop, apply, and integrate several suggestions on operational and procedural details that maximize the effectiveness of face-to-face time.

Process:

1. Hand out The Ten Commandments for Committees for a light-hearted, if somewhat cynical, look at some of the pitfalls of group meetings. Use it as a warm-up piece before the meeting starts or a conversation starter over coffee.
2. *Initiating, Conducting, and Participating*. Introduce the concept of initiating, conducting, and participating in effective meetings as a leadership skill. It requires leadership to *initiate* a meeting -- to bring people together to focus on a problem or to share information. It requires leadership to conduct a meeting -- to move through the agenda items at a pace appropriate to the level of readiness exhibited by the group. It also requires leadership to *participate* in a meeting -- to effectively engage people with ideas which enhance group productivity.
3. *Pet Peeves and Missing Pieces*. Ask participants to respond to the following questions:

   ☐ How many of you have had to take the initiative in convening a meeting -- perhaps composed of people who have not worked together before --or perhaps with your peers?

   ☐ How many of you have had the responsibility of chairing a meeting from start to finish?

   ☐ How many of you attend a meeting -- either social or business

      ☐ once a month?

      ☐ once a week?

      ☐ more than three times a week?

   Ask participants to list their "Pet Peeves" or "Missing Pieces" on a piece of paper (or 3x5 cards), based on their experiences with some of the meetings which came to mind in response to the above questions.

   Direct participants to form small sharing groups to develop a common list of key words and phrases from among the Pet Peeves and Missing Pieces.

   Harvest a word or phrase from each group by recording items from their lists on newsprint. A list of typical responses might include the following:

   "Meeting did not start on time."
   "No agenda distributed."
   "No clear purpose."
   "No minutes distributed."
   "No time limits set."
   "No decision rules."
   "No parameters for discussion."
   "No stretch/coffee/cigarette breaks."
   "Distracting setting."
   "Too many people talking at once."

"One person dominating the whole meeting."
"No decisions made."

4. *Guidelines for Leadership.* Present and discuss concepts and ideas contained in the handout Guidelines for Leadership in Small Groups. Use a transparency or newsprint to highlight the main ideas.

   Summarize with reading and discussing Benchmarks to Measure the Success of Group Facilitation.

5. *Conducting Effective Meetings -- Jigsaw Activity.* Good meetings are the result of more than structure and strategy, although those are two good places to start. Good meetings are characterized by attention to small details easily overlooked in the press of day-to-day business. Careful planning before the meeting starts, keeping in mind principles for conducting meetings well, and targeted, reliable follow-up after the meeting can result in much higher productivity and satisfaction among team members. This exercise focuses attention on a variety of suggestions for improving meeting processes.

   ☐ Give instructions for a Jigsaw (see Chapter 2, Activity 3 for more detail). Establish Home Groups of four. Each group member is assigned a number from one to four -- that is the number of their Expert Group.

   Expert Group Assignments:

Group 1: The Best Little Meetings

Group 2: The Art of Running a Meeting
Decision Making for School Site Councils

Group 3: Ground Rules for Better Meetings
On the Value of Newsprint as A Facilitation Tool

Group 4: Strategies for Productive, Efficient Meetings

☐ Expert Groups convene. They read their assignments. Then they make a list of the suggestions/ideas which they think would improve group meetings. They discuss these questions: What could you do before the meeting? What could you do during the meeting? What could you do after the meeting?

☐ Participants return to Home Groups. They first "teach" each other what they learned. They then make a composite list of all the suggestions each expert has brought to the group. Once the list is complete they discuss particular implications for their whole team. They develop some suggestions for "standard practice" to recommend to the entire team.

☐ Wrap-up the activity by sharing each Home Group's suggestions and deciding as a total group which "standard practice" recommendations will be adopted.

Resources:

Auger, B.Y. (1976). *Business Meetings That Work.* Toronto, Canada: Coles.

Bliss, Edwin (1986). *Getting Things Done.* New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Bradford, Leland (1976). *Making Meetings Work: A Guide for Leaders and Group Members.* San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Cleese, John, and Anthony, Jay (1987). *Meetings, Bloody Meetings.* 30 minute film or videotape. Northbrook, IL: Video Arts, Inc.

Doyle, Michael, and Strauss, David (1976). *How to Make Meetings Work.* New York, NY: Premium Sales Paperbacks.

Fletcher, Winston (1983). *Meetings, Meetings.* New York, NY: William Morrow & Company, Inc.

Hall, Larry (1987). *Making Meetings Work: A Five Step Plan.* 18 minute film or videocassette. Chicago, IL: Britannica Training and Development Corporation.

Hunsaker, Phillip L., and Alessandra, Anthony (1980). *The Art of Managing People.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

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Moffett, C., and Warger, C. (1988). *Human Resource Development Program Handbook.* Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

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Chapter 4, Activity 5

Assessing Team Effectiveness

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

☐ to provide experience with a variety of team assessment strategies, tools, and techniques

Materials:

☐ Handouts:
  - Observer Guide
  - Some Characteristic Behaviors Found in Productive Groups
  - A Yardstick for Measuring the Growth of a Team
  - General Assessment of Project Health
  - Assessing Council Meeting Effectiveness
  - Analyzing Group Goals
  - Assessing Group Cohesiveness
  - Assessing Group Communication
  - How Are Your Team Meetings Going?
  - Characteristics I Value in a Colleague
  - Who Does What in Our Group? (from Activity 2)
  - Guidelines for Assessing Team Effectiveness

☐ Newsprint and marker

☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

One of the keys to effective teaming is frequent monitoring and self-assessment of team progress, behavior, growth, effectiveness, productivity, cohesiveness, community conflict, etc. Such monitoring can be carried out by using meeting evaluation sheets, distributing team member surveys, requiring regular progress reports, providing suggestion boxes, or conducting small group discussions designed to identify strengths and weaknesses in team operations. The essence of this activity is to promote an attitude of constant self-assessment aimed at improvement.

In the process suggestions which follow, participants will apply and evaluate several procedures for assessing team effectiveness. We recommend that self-assessment processes not be looked upon as a "one-time" exercise, but the tools and processes contained within this section should be returned to over and over again, focusing on those which are appropriate to the team's current issues and developmental stage. By becoming familiar with the process and purpose of many self-assessment tools, the team will be able to choose an appropriate tool to match the current issues and concerns of group members.

Process:

1. Introduce the concept of assessing team effectiveness as a leadership activity aimed at identifying group strengths and making adjustments in unproductive behaviors, procedures, or expectations.
2. Review some of the ways effective teams participate in regular, ongoing assessment. The following techniques can be summarized on an overhead or on newsprint:
   - ☐ meeting evaluation sheets
   - ☐ team member surveys
   - ☐ progress reports
   - ☐ suggestion boxes
   - ☐ small group discussions
3. Encourage participants to tell stories or share their experiences in using any of these techniques. Ask them to provide concrete examples of materials, tools, or techniques they have used in the past.
4. Acknowledge the resource materials available on a display table. These resource materials should include all of the evaluations and surveys included in this guide, as well as other references and handouts that are available.
5. Provide participants with an opportunity to experience and discuss one of the evaluations/surveys included in this activity.
   - ☐ Choose one evaluation/survey and distribute it to the group.
   - ☐ Instruct participants to complete the items individually, then ask them to compare responses in small groups of three or four.
   - ☐ Bring the whole group together to "harvest highlights" from each of the small group discussions. Try to focus attention on what the instrument taught them about their team.
   - ☐ Invite participants to reflect on the potential for using this instrument or technique again or with other team members.

- ☐ Encourage participants to suggest other ways to adapt or use this instrument in improving team performance.

6. Summarize by distributing and reviewing Guidelines for Assessing Team Effectiveness.

Resources:

Carney, J., and Chrispeels, J. (1984). *Schools and Communities Working Together for Effective Schools and Stronger Communities.* San Diego, CA: San Diego County Office of Education.

Miles, Matthew B. (1981). *Learning to Work in Groups.* Second Edition. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Miller, Rima. (1987). *Team Planning for Educational Leaders.* Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc.

The NETWORK, Inc. (1979). *General Assessment of Project Health.* Andover, MA: Author.

Turner, Ernie. (1985). *Intelitec Program Planning Guide.* White Plains, NY: Intelitec Management Systems, Inc.

CHAPTER 5

Assessment and Beyond: Determining Priorities for Professional Growth

Overview:

We've entitled this chapter *Assessment and Beyond* to remind ourselves and others that assessment is not an end but simply a means to what lies beyond, namely, a direction or focus for professional growth. Sometimes this is forgotten and too much attention is paid to assessment, rather than to its outcome. We view assessment and goal setting as an integrated unit. Needs assessment is the process of gathering, analyzing, and evaluating information about the differences between conditions as they are and more desirable ones. Needs may stem from significant problems or simply represent conditions which are better. Or they may emerge from a process of developing a vision of where a school wants to be at some point in the future. The outcome of an assessment is a set of thoughtfully and clearly articulated goals for professional growth.

Because of this, assessment is an important responsibility for staff developers. There are many possibilities and often so many needs. How do you determine what you need or want to work on? It's not always an easy question to answer. The "content" for professional growth is vast, approaches to determining directions for improvement vary, and numerous assessment techniques and information sources can be used.

Assessment may involve collection of lots of data or it may require only a little. It can take place formally or informally, verbally or on paper, individually or collectively. It may involve gathering new information or re-examining data which already exist. Predesigned assessment tools may be used or new ones developed. Assessment activities may be conducted by people inside or outside the school. There is no one correct or even preferred method or approach to use. A number of decisions, preferably informed and thoughtful ones, about what is most appropriate for a school(s) must be made to result in clearly articulated and endorsed objectives for professional growth.

Care must be taken, however, in assembling and using data for such decisions. Needs assessment is one of the most abused common planning processes. This is true for many reasons. Many approaches to assessment are linear and rational, but schools often don't operate in this fashion. Decisions tend to be made in a more random and associative fashion. So a rational, sequential approach is not always feasible nor even desirable.

To many, assessment means a quick and superficial written survey of wants. In other cases it is overdone and turns into a laborious, lengthy process that saps everyone's energy and time. One high school team, for example, spent an entire year doing the "perfect" assessment: they carefully and thoughtfully selected different types of information to gather and methods to do so, involved the rest of the staff in the process, personalizing both the giving and receiving of the data, and shared with them the results of the assessment. The outcome was clearly articulated and endorsed objectives for professional growth. By this time, however, the team was worn out and never managed to determine what to *do* about the objectives, much less to actually do anything about them. The momentum was lost. A balance is needed between the typical quick and superficial needs assessment and an in-depth, exhaustive one that depletes time and energy.

A problem-solving approach to assessment and goal setting sometimes results in a preoccupation with existing undesirable conditions, without attention paid to desirable ones. Some schools don't have major problems. While pre-designed, research-based assessment tools have an aura of credibility, they are frequently mismatched with the context of a given school and of little value. School staff often grab onto the first "neat" assessment instrument that comes along without first determining what they want to find out, and whether the instrument will do it.

All information-gathering techniques, including the ever-favored nominal group process, have their disadvantages as well as advantages. If an instrument is not thoughtfully and appropriately matched to the needs and context of a particular school, the result is a collection of irrelevant and useless information. Predesigned instruments are particularly seductive because development time can be skipped. Inappropriate data collection adds layers to the frequently and rightfully tarnished reputation of needs assessment.

A good assessment is a conscious and public activity that involves staff in authentic ways. It draws on the internal knowledge of staff as well as the external knowledge base about effective learning and teaching. The result is a deeper understanding of the school and its players, as well as a vision for professional growth. When done well, the assessment process invariably opens communication among staff and other members of the school community. It can be enjoyable, as well as educational.

Consider the following when determining a focus for professional development:

- ☐ different approaches to determining professional development goals
- ☐ a variety of assessment tools and information sources
- ☐ guidelines for goal setting

This section includes information and activities related to each of these.

Goals for This Chapter:

- ☐ to introduce a new perspective on assessment and appropriate practices and tools
- ☐ to engage school staff in collecting adequate data and making informed decisions about goals for professional development

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Educating Decision Makers about Assessment (60-90 minutes)

Activity 2: Approaches to Determining a Focus for Professional Development (60-90 minutes)

Activity 3: Information Sources and Methods of Collection (3-4 hours)

Activity 4: Reaching Consensus on Priority Needs (3-8 hours)

Activity 5: Problem Definition and Goal Setting (2-4 hours)

Chapter 5, Activity 1

Educating Decision Makers About Assessment

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to expand the vision of successful assessment
- ☐ to develop site-specific guidelines for action

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Needs Assessment: A Fable about Three Pigs

  Summary of Best Practices in Assessment

  Considerations: Determining a Focus for Professional Growth

  Needs Assessment Vignettes

Trainer's Notes:

Assessment is an influential and, therefore, important responsibility for staff developers. It is also commonly abused, often because people are uninformed. Assessment is more than a survey or questionnaire, and this deeply embedded stereotype needs to be dispelled. Successful assessment means decision makers who are knowledgeable about a variety of approaches and techniques and make thoughtful decisions about which ones best suit the context of their schools.

Materials provided here present some basic information about good practices and a framework for assessment. The fable simply serves as an entertaining beginning to get people thinking about needs assessment. The considerations, exemplified through the vignettes, present the larger picture of what assessment entails. It leads to rich discussion about past and desirable practices. An expanded vision and site-specific recommendations for action result.

Process:

1. Ask participants to read all of the handouts.
2. Assign pairs to each consideration for review and discussion. Report out:
   - ☐ key points
   - ☐ how this aspect of assessment has been handled in the past in their district

- specific recommendations for future action

As they work through the considerations, refer to the vignettes and note how relevant considerations were handled in each of the five case studies.

3. Conduct a large group discussion with these guiding questions:
   - Which of the considerations are most often overlooked?
   - Which are the most difficult to carry out?
   - Which are the most critical for success?

Chapter 5, Activity 2

Approaches to Determining a Focus For Professional Development

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

- to learn about and consider different approaches to determining professional development needs

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Worksheet for Approaches

  Approaches to Determine Professional Development Needs

- Transparency:

  Approaches to Assessment

- Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

This set of activities will almost assuredly stimulate new thought about how needs for professional development activities have been or might be identified. Most school staff and certainly new staff developers haven't thought about different approaches, the advantages and disadvantages of each, and the resulting implications for what they might do in their own schools.

We've found the most commonly used approaches to be problem solving or "research says," and while these may be perfectly appropriate means to determine needs in *some* settings, they simply don't work in others. The existence of curricular changes, exemplary programs, and mandates may in fact suggest some very useful starting points in determining needs for professional growth. Staff need to be aware of these alternative approaches before embarking on a needs assessment. Although more than one approach may obviously be appropriate in school at a given time, we've found that one or two usually dominate. When provided with information about all five approaches, staff development teams don't have any trouble in identifying those most appropriate. The value in considering this array of approaches is that it can help to focus an assessment on something that is reasonable and feasible, as well as timely. Each of the approaches suggests differences in the type of information collected and the tools to collect it.

Be prepared to tease out advantages and disadvantages for each approach, especially with the "research says" approach. Teachers unfamiliar with research will tend to disregard it and ignore its potential value. In contrast, problem solving is a common favorite, and while it can be appropriate in schools facing significant problems, it can also be very limiting. It is not always appropriate in schools which don't have major problems, but simply want to be better. Be sure to allow time to generate thought about these and other issues.

Process:

1. Using the transparency, introduce and highlight each approach. Stress the importance of being familiar with a variety of approaches in order to determine the most appropriate one(s). Note that while they may overlap, they often don't, and the motivation behind each is usually distinctly different.
2. Form small groups of no more than five. Have participants complete the Worksheet for Approaches individually, and then share results within the group.

   Directions for the worksheet:

   - Identify and list staff development or other activities in which you have participated that have contributed to your professional development.
   - How was each determined? Check the appropriate approach(es). Who decided? Fill in the name of the person or group.
3. Ask the small groups to discuss these questions: Are there any patterns? How appropriate were the approaches used? What are implications for what you might do?
4. Assign each group one of the five approaches. Ask them to identify the advantages and disadvantages of their approach.
5. Have small groups report out to whole group. Handout Approaches to Determine Professional Development Needs and compare with the advantages and disadvantages listed.
6. In small groups again, order the appropriateness of each approach for their situations. Report out responses and rationale for the choices.

Chapter 5, Activity 3

Information Sources and Methods of Collection

Time Required: 3-4 hours

Purpose:

- to learn about different information collection tools and methods
- to develop an action plan for assessment

Materials:

- Handouts:
  - Four Techniques for Assessment
  - Directions for Nominal Group Process (from Chapter 4, Activity 3)
  - Sample Questionnaires (selected from bibliography)
- Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

Rather than simply telling staff about different types of information to gather and methods to do so, we've found it more meaningful to have them generate their own list from the approaches they value. They inevitably identify the most appropriate data collection techniques.

To do this the nominal group process is a sure winner. It not only focuses thought but also provides a structure for both being heard and hearing others, an uncommon phenomenon in many schools. It can do wonders in opening communication among staff. It is not fail-proof, however. The usefulness of the information it yields will be determined by the question posed, and the question will direct the kind of information received. Therefore, formulating the right question is quite important.

Archival data can present a rich source of information which is often ignored. However, to be meaningful to staff development planners it needs to be thought of in relation to a real problem. Thus the sequence presented here -- with an "archival dig" following the nominal group process -- seems to work best. This simple activity often leads to insights about the importance of verifying information and really defining the needs. As a high school teacher concluded: "We had a statement that we wouldn't defend without hard data."

Many consider the use of a predesigned questionnaire as optimal: it saves much time that would have been spent developing one's own. A major value of many predesigned questionnaires lies in their presentation of an external knowledge base about good teaching and learning. They educate the staff at the same time as they serve as an assessment tool. However, they are frequently abused, used in haste and mismatched with the context of a school. It is important to stress the necessity of reviewing a questionnaire carefully in advance, checking the items to be sure they're appropriate to the school. A questionnaire designed for an urban school, for example, might not fit a rural school. (Note, however, that changing or eliminating items on a questionnaire with a statistically solid scoring system will make that scoring system useless.)

Questionnaires should also be checked to see if any single individual (e.g., the principal) is singled out. If so, it's important that that person is aware of its use and agrees to such public scrutiny. The climate of a school should also be considered. There is something about the impersonal written form of questionnaires that is unattractive to many teachers. Strategies for personalizing their use may need to be considered.

Discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of data collection techniques should not be shortchanged. The matching of a tool with a school is critical to its success. Be prepared to prod if necessary and make your own contribution to the list of advantages and disadvantages, if the group identifies only a few. And they may. For people unfamiliar with tools, this is the time to educate them about the possibilities.

Process:

1. Brainstorm responses to the questions: How might we determine a focus for professional development using each of the top three approaches we identified in the last activity? What information would we need to collect? How would we collect it?
2. Categorize responses. Include personal interaction, archives, observation, questionnaires. Distribute and ask participants to read Four Techniques for Assessment.
3. Refer back to Figure 1, from Activity 1. Note the different methods used in each case. Stress the importance of matching the methods with the focusing question.
4. *Practice Techniques.* Explain the purpose of this sequence of activities: to practice using several distinctly different assessment techniques in order to be able to make informed decisions about what they want to do in their school. Note that these may not be techniques they choose to use.
   - ☐ *Nominal Group Process*
     - ☐ Review directions for the nominal group process (use handout, The Nominal Group Process, from Chapter 4, Activity 3). Note that any question can direct the process and stress the importance of being thoughtful about the question they ask. The question will direct the kind of information they get.
     - ☐ Break into small groups (five to seven each) and assign different questions. Use examples below or give groups the option of choosing their own. The point is to have several different questions being addressed.

Examples:

    - What are the most pressing problems your school is facing? What are your school's strengths?
    - What is your greatest problem in the process of helping children learn?
    - What do you need to know more about or do better to help you be more effective in your job?
  - Do the activity following directions on the handout.
  - Identify advantages and disadvantages of this process. Ask participants to consider: How might it be modified to better suit their needs?
  - Report out. Compare the different kind of information each question generated. Discuss advantages and disadvantages.
- *Archival Data*
  - Continue working in small groups.
  - Ask participants to focus on one need identified in the nominal group process. Ask: Do we have enough information about this problem to resolve it? Have we defined it thoroughly enough to be able to resolve it?
  - Identify what additional information sources, particularly archival data, might be used to either confirm or validate the need, or to clarify or define the need.
  - In particular, consider archival data they might use. Review information in Four Techniques for Assessment and use as the starting point.
  - Identify and discuss advantages and disadvantages of using archival data.
  - Report out.
- *Predesigned Questionnaires.* The purpose here is to try out and learn about some additional tools designed to yield information about a specific focus, (i.e. school climate, instruction). These tools are based on research on effective teaching and learning.
  - Form small groups (at least three). Distribute different questionnaires to each group (refer to bibliography for possibilities). Individually, complete the questionnaire.
  - As a group, identify the focus of the tool (what was it designed to find out?), what they liked and didn't like about it (advantages and disadvantages), and potential modifications. Also, consider if this tool or parts of it could be used to clarify or validate the problem they've been working on.
  - Report out. (Ask for advocates for each instrument. Who really liked it, and why.)

5. Action Planning:

- ☐ Discuss with participants which approach(es) can be used to identify professional development goals in their school(s). What do they want to find out? (What will the focus of their assessment be?)
- ☐ Decide what assessment techniques or information sources to use.
- ☐ Decide who will gather the information, when, and where.

Bibliography of Questionnaires:

"Connecticut School Effectiveness Questionnaire," by R. M. Villanova, W. J. Gauthier, C. P. Proctor, and J. Shoemaker. State Department of Education, Hartford, CT.

"CSK, LTD School Climate Profile," in *A Handbook for Conducting School Climate Improvement Projects*, by E. Howard, B. Howell, and E. Brainard. Phi Delta Kappan Educational Foundation, Bloomington, IN, 1987.

"Staff Relations Survey," Minnesota Department of Education. Contact Jane Tramm, Program Planner, Metro ECSU, 3499 Lexington Avenue North, St. Paul, MN.

"Questionnaire for Assessing School and Classroom Effectiveness," in David A. Squires, W. G. Huitt, and John K. Segars, *Effective Schools and Classrooms: A Research-Based Perspective*, ASCD, Alexandria, VA, 1983.

"Survey of Professional Staff Perceptions," New York State Effective Schools Consortium, NY State Department of Education, School District Organization and Development, Thomas P. Fitzgerald, Bureau Chief.

Chapter 5, Activity 4

Reaching Consensus on Priority Needs

Time Required: 3-8 hours (depending on the complexity of assessment information and the number of competing interests)

Purpose:

- to use consensus-building techniques to address a wide range of needs, and to arrive at consensus about priority needs for staff development activities

Materials:

Chapter 4, Activity 3 provides several consensus building techniques.

- Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

When assessment information has been collected, staff development teams are often confronted with a range of needs far too wide to be adequately addressed in the near or long range future. Many assessments turn up needs for which staff development is not an effective solution, such as reducing class size or increasing the size of the library. If the assessment has been thorough, seeking input from the widest possible range of interested parties, then a weeding out and paring down of needs will surely be required.

It is important to remember that assessments begin as every respondent's wish list. Needs are most often identified without regard for the resources required to meet them. That's okay. Needs assessments are supposed to be wide-ranging and thorough. However, there comes a time -- and it is now – to reduce the needs list to a coherent and prioritized set of items which can be developed into realistic staff development goals and activities.

The time required to complete this activity depends on the size of the unit or the number of units involved in the needs assessment. If a district staff development team is trying to sort out the needs identified by a number of schools, then this activity may take an entire day. A single elementary school may need only two or three hours, while a large high school will likely need much more time. The greater the variety and number of needs, the more time should be devoted to the prioritizing step.

This activity suggests how teams can use consensus-building techniques to identify priority needs areas for staff development planning and intervention.

Process:

1. Begin by developing a list of all identified needs. Use the nominal group process round-robin techniques (see Chapter 4, Activity 3). Post all needs where all participants can see them clearly.
2. Once all needs have been posted, discussed, and clarified so that they are understood by all team members, choose either the nominal group process or multi-voting techniques, which are most appropriate for reducing the number and prioritizing. As the participants engage in their deliberations, be sure to clarify and weed out those needs for which staff development is not the answer.
3. Once participants have completed the consensus-building process, they should have a manageable number of staff development needs to enable them to proceed to the next activity -- Problem Definition and Goal Setting.

Chapter 5, Activity 5

Problem Definition and Goal Setting

Time Required: 2-4 hours

Purpose:

☐ to define priority problems and determine goals for improvement

Materials:

☐ Handouts:

Four Guidelines for Writing a Problem Statement

Activity: Writing a Problem Statement

Guidelines for Goal Setting

Trainer's Notes:

This activity should be done after data have been gathered and priority areas of need identified.

The process of problem definition is often resisted. Many don't want to take the time to really define their needs and goals. They assume that everyone is in agreement and therefore the exercise is a waste of time. In reality, such agreement is rare. Data are rarely black or white and inevitably are open to multiple interpretations. We've learned that clear and sometimes strong intervention and facilitation is necessary at this point. As differing perceptions become evident the value of such an exercise is immediately recognized. While this definition phase shouldn't be overdone, we do feel it's very important to spend some time clarifying the issues and goals. This is the time for people to get their cards on the table.

Some groups prefer to work through the entire process together, for each need. Others break into small groups, with each group working on a separate need, and then share their results. Both approaches are effective.

Process:

1. Distribute, read and discuss Four Guidelines for Writing a Problem Statement.
2. Form small groups to work on need areas which have been identified.
3. Within each group, ask participants to complete Activity: Writing a Problem Statement. Initially, have them respond individually and share responses, then

come to a consensus about the improvement goal. Distribute and review Guidelines for Goal Setting and use as a check.

4. Ask each group to report out. Discuss and modify as appropriate.

CHAPTER 6

Effective Designs for Learning

Overview:

The selection or design of quality professional growth opportunities is a major hurdle for many staff development planners. Short-term, isolated activities on relevant (at best), or irrelevant topics, unlikely to do more than increase awareness, continue to be the wearying norm in many school districts. Training continues to be viewed as the primary, if not sole, vehicle for professional development. It is unfortunate, for the best designed and executed needs assessment means nothing if not followed by appropriate professional growth activities. And "appropriate" frequently means alternatives to traditional training.

A whole array of alternative vehicles, both formal and informal, exist and should be considered. They aren't merely frills and in many cases, particularly with experienced staff, are far more effective in stimulating growth than traditional workshops or training programs. These learning opportunities are the content and the heart of a staff development system. A collaborative structure alone will not lead to growth. The worth of the system is ultimately determined by the worth of the activities contained within it.

As with any of the planning processes, there's more to program design than may be apparent. It is certainly more than grabbing the first interesting, relevant, or available program or person. Success requires:

- ☐ knowledge of alternative solutions or improvement strategies to resolve problems or to meet goals
- ☐ knowledge of alternative formats and approaches to professional growth
- ☐ knowledge of available resources, including people, programs, and materials
- ☐ matching of resources, formats, and approaches to local needs and concerns of participants
- ☐ skill in selecting consultants
- ☐ thoughtful planning and conscious application of what is known about successful staff development

The first phase is *fact finding*. This means finding out as much as possible about a wide array of strategies for professional growth and the resources -- people, programs, materials -- to achieve them. Local, state, and national resources should be considered and ideas generated from persons within and outside of a school. Fact finding also means knowing about diverse options for professional development. Many alternative vehicles for continued growth are possible and some may be vastly more effective than more traditional approaches.

During this phase it's important to keep an open mind regarding possibilities and to delay premature judgment. It's too easy to grab onto the first good idea; solutions can be improved by looking at alternatives. The more ideas considered, the greater the likelihood of good ideas.

The next step is to evaluate the ideas that have been gathered and *narrow* the possibilities to those that are achievable, desirable, and effective: This means examining them in light of school context factors such as time, money, staff, and philosophy. A great idea or program might simply not fit the realities of a school. It also means consideration of staff concerns about potential changes, since different kinds of concerns suggest different types of support activities. For example, teachers unfamiliar with cooperative learning will most likely be concerned about what it looks like, what it will mean for them, and whether or not they can do it. Professional development activities appropriate for these concerns might include review and discussion of descriptive information about the program, observation of cooperative learning in use, and discussion with teachers who are using it. Training to follow would emphasize the "nitty-gritty" details of how to do it. In contrast, teachers experienced in cooperative learning are more likely to be concerned about improving what they are doing through discussions with others. For them, problem-solving sessions with other experienced teachers would be an appropriate professional growth strategy.

Finally, effective program design means making choices among people to provide training or assistance and with them planning the particulars of their work. Selection of the right person means more than getting somebody good. Their skills, knowledge, and style must match teacher needs. A consultant can be highly effective in one school and totally ineffective in another. And it's not always simply a matter of a "bad day."

The final phase in program design is *putting it all together*. By this time, the strategies, people and formats have been determined to achieve the objective. A specific plan for implementation including who does what, when, where, how, etc., now needs to be written. The plan should first be reexamined in light of known successful staff development practices (e.g., Have opportunities been provided for participant involvement? Time to absorb and reflect on new information? Opportunities for practice and feedback? Follow-up support? Peer problem-solving about application?) These practices really do make a difference and should be consciously applied in the final design. Also, give consideration to location and timing of support activities, equipment and supplies, materials, and communication. Careful attention to such logistics can contribute significantly to the success of an activity.

A danger with all of this, of course, is that it is exceedingly rational, logical, and takes time. In practice, programs are rarely developed in such a tidy fashion. Fact finding is often minimal and programs are not always matched to local needs. The availability of a consultant is frequently the primary criterion for selection. We are growing increasingly impatient, however, with the outcomes of such actions. Time and resources are too limited to waste on activities that don't match needs and won't make a difference. While we know the difficulties of finding time to research alternatives and thoughtfully match them to reality, we believe in the necessity of trying. This process doesn't have to be belabored, doesn't necessarily mean involvement of the world, and doesn't have to be overly time-consuming. But it must be thoughtful.

A variety of activities and relevant information that might be used to carry out each of these phases is presented in this chapter.

Goals for This Chapter:

- to extend knowledge about:
  - phases of program design
  - alternative professional growth strategies and resources and the tools to identify and choose among them
- to consider potential problems in program implementation and plan actions to avoid them

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Educating the Decision Makers about Program Design (45-60 minutes)

Fact Finding:

Activity 2: Alternative Approaches and Formats for Professional Growth (2 1/2 - 3 hours)

Activity 3: Identifying Resources and Possible Improvement Strategies (2 hours)

Narrowing the Possibilities:

Activity 4: Solution Selection (1 1/2 - 3 hours)

Activity 5: Tailoring Activities to Participants' Concerns (60-90 minutes)

Activity 6: Selection and Use of Consultants (60-90 minutes)

Putting It All Together:

Activity 7: Developing An Action Plan (1 1/2 - 2 hours)

Activity 8: Creative Pessimism (45-90 minutes)

Chapter 6, Activity 1

Educating the Decision Makers about Program Design

Time Required: 45-60 minutes

Purpose:

- to extend knowledge about phases of program design and the application of successful staff development practices

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Overview: Effective Designs for Learning

  Case Study
- Transparency:

  Effective Designs for Learning
- Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

It is critical to determine at the start who should make decisions about program design. This is a very appropriate time to form ad hoc task forces to research possibilities for a given objective. It is also a wonderful way to involve staff in things that interest them. The information presented and discussed here provides an overview of stages of successful planning and considerations for designing professional growth activities. It will inevitably expand staff visions of what programs can and should be. The case study provides an opportunity to view the application of good practices used in a real school district. It encourages planners more consciously to apply successful practices in their own designs. Over time this knowledge base will be acted on intuitively, but this is rarely the case at the beginning. Old patterns are firmly entrenched.

Process:

1. Carefully consider who should be involved in program design. Form task forces of appropriate persons to develop plans responsive to each professional development goal.
2. Ask participants to read Overview: Effective Designs for Learning. Using the transparency Effective Designs for Learning, highlight the stages of program design. Stress the importance of considering alternative vehicles for professional growth.

3. Ask participants to reflect on a recent staff development program in which they participated or which they planned. Using the overview and steps as guidelines, what were its strengths? How could it have been improved? What are implications for planning future staff development activities?

4. Case Study

   - ☐ Ask participants to read the case study.
   - ☐ In triads, have them identify how knowledge about successful staff development practices was applied at the district and building levels. Discuss: What did they like/dislike about the plan?
   - ☐ Share responses and discuss implications for planning.

Chapter 6, Activity 2

Alternative Approaches and Formats for Professional Growth

- Fact Finding -

Time Required: 2 1/2 - 3 hours

Purpose:

☐ to extend knowledge about alternative approaches and formats for professional growth which might be used in meeting improvement goals

Materials:

☐ Handouts:

Alternative Approaches to Professional Development: Overview

Alternative Approaches to Professional Growth: Conditions and Considerations

Formats for Professional Development

☐ Handouts for one-sixth of participants:

Readings on alternative approaches from Chapter 4 of *Continuing to Learn* and bibliography of readings of other alternatives

☐ Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

Don't shortchange this section! Professional development to many means a workshop, a course, or a training program. Such a limited view is unfortunate because so many alternative vehicles for continued growth are possible. And some of these are likely to be vastly more effective and desirable. For example, while training (and we assume, of course, very good training) may be an appropriate format for learning new skills, it may be inappropriate for experienced teachers interested in refining old skills and extending their knowledge. For them a study group or peer coaching would probably be far more effective. The challenge is to select the approaches which best match a given goal and audience. This assumes, of course, knowledge of what these alternative approaches are. Knowledge of such options is critical if effective designs for learning are to be planned by staff developers. An examination of alternative approaches frequently broadens a staff's understanding of what professional development can mean, usually in a very favorable way. One rather disappointed district staff development team that was struggling to be excited about what they thought their charge was – to plan workshops for inservice days and summer courses – was delighted to learn through a seminar on alternative approaches that indeed professional development can and should be far more than that. Their enthusiasm for their task jumped appreciably.

Be sure to allow enough time for people to read, think, and talk about the approaches. If the Jigsaw activity is shortchanged, the result is frustration, incomplete understanding and sometimes acute anxiety for slow readers. It's better to err on the side of too much time rather than too little. We've found about 40 minutes for each segment (reading of two articles, discussion with expert peer, a preparation of presentation, and Home Group presentations) to be comfortably appropriate.

Process:

1. Distribute and discuss Alternative Approaches to Professional Development: Overview.
2. Distribute Alternative Approaches to Professional Growth: Conditions and Considerations.
   - ☐ Ask participants to respond individually:
     - ☐ Identify the three conditions which most accurately describe your school.
     - ☐ Note the approaches which might be relevant for each of the conditions you identified as well as for your professional development goals.
     - ☐ Identify three approaches you'd like to learn more about.
   - ☐ Report out and chart responses.
3. Jigsaw Activity on Alternative Approaches
   - ☐ If necessary, review directions for Jigsaw in Chapter 2, Activity 3.
   - ☐ Form Home Groups of six. Try to group so that pairs of people interested in a particular approach are in the same group.
   - ☐ Within each group identify six different approaches to learn more about. Form "expert" pairs with each pair responsible for two different approaches. Be sure all six are covered.
   - ☐ Distribute readings on each of the selected approaches. (Refer to Chapter 4 in *Continuing to Learn,* "Alternative Approaches to Teacher Development" and the bibliography of other readings on alternative approaches.)
   - ☐ Ask participants to read the selections.
   - ☐ Within "expert" pairs of readers of similar articles, discuss:
     - ☐ Upon what assumptions is this approach based?
     - ☐ What does the approach look like in practice?
     - ☐ What conditions are necessary for the success of this approach?

  - ☐ What are the benefits of this approach?
  - ☐ What related issues warrant further consideration?
  - ☐ How appropriate is this approach to meeting our identified professional growth objective?

  Based on their discussion, ask participants to create a one-page summary or visual to use during their presentation to their home team. (Provide approximately 45 minutes.)

- ☐ Return to Home Groups. Expert pairs teach their peers about their approaches. As a group, they identify those that might be used to meet their objectives. (Provide approximately 45 minutes, giving each approach about 5 minutes for presentation.)

4. Brainstorm and discuss additional strategies for professional growth. Consider particularly those informal activities which can become an ongoing part of the school. Compare the list with those identified in the handout, Formats for Professional Development.

5. Homework assignment: Ask individuals to read information about other approaches of interest to them.

Chapter 6, Activity 3

Identifying Resources and Possible Improvement Strategies

- Fact Finding -

Time Required: 2 hours

Purpose:

- ☐ to become familiar with a variety of information-gathering tools
- ☐ to identify a variety of approaches, strategies, and resources which might be utilized in meeting your professional development objectives

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Resources for Solutions: An Information User's Checklist

  Principles for Brainstorming (from Chapter 3, Activity 3)

  Problem-Solving Capsule

  Nominal Group Process: A Group Interview

  Screening Promising Practices for Adoption

Trainer's Notes:

Far more strategies for professional growth and resources pertinent to them are available than most school staff realize. And many don't cost money. It is important for staff developers involved in program design to be aware of possibilities as well as the tools to learn about more of these strategies. Since people seem to want to rush to solutions, it's easy to get stuck on a solution which might not be the best one, and can also severely limit the possibilities. During this phase of fact finding everyone should be encouraged to get and give ideas, even seemingly ridiculous ones. Creativity should be urged and honored and all ideas accepted without criticism.

The activities presented here are designed to expand and prolong the idea-generating phase, preventing premature closure. Most are interactive, yield lots of good information, and are fun to do. Because of this, they are nearly always successful.

Brainstorming is an age-old, effective technique for quickly identifying a range of possible improvement strategies or resources. As stated in Chapter 4, the nominal group process is a superb vehicle for opening communication -- through a structured process of listening to others and being listened to -- as well as getting some good ideas.

And the problem-solving capsule is an excellent vehicle to help staff further clarify their needs or problems and also get practical suggestions for how to resolve them.

The purpose of this sequence of activities is to become familiar with a variety of information gathering techniques so that the most appropriate ones can be used in each situation.

Screening Promising Practices is a useful tool for considering adoption of a program or practice that has been developed and used elsewhere. Introduction of this tool helps at this point, before beginning to narrow the possibilities.

Process:

1. Modify and expand Resources for Solutions: An Information User's Checklist to match resources within your location. Share with participants, read and discuss these questions:
    - ☐ Which of these do you commonly use?
    - ☐ Which give you the most useful information?
    - ☐ Identify the three most important resources to tap.
2. Ask participants to read about and consider use of the following information-gathering activities. Keep in mind that the focus of any of these tools would be on the identification of alternative resources or improvement strategies to meet your professional development goals.
    - ☐ Brainstorming (handout from Chapter 3, Activity 3)
    - ☐ Problem-Solving Capsule
    - ☐ Nominal Group Process
        - ☐ Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using each of these as a tool to gather information pertinent to meeting your staff development goals.
        - ☐ Determine which ones, if any, to use.
3. Screening Promising Practices is for use when considering a program or practice that has been developed and used somewhere else. Ask participants to read it and discuss its application: In what situations might it be used?
4. Ask participants to develop a plan (who will do what, when?) for gathering specific information on alternative solutions/resources to the goals they've identified. Conclude with a list of alternative possibilities.

Chapter 6, Activity 4

Solution Selection

- Narrowing the Possibilities -

Time Required: 1 1/2 - 3 hours

Purpose:

- to narrow the alternative improvement strategies and resources to those that are the most desirable and appropriate

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Solution Review Worksheet

  Solution Selection Worksheet
- Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes

The outcome of these activities will be the identification of a limited number of strategies pertinent to each goal that are achievable, controllable, and desirable. Some will undoubtedly cluster together naturally. A summer institute on whole language, for example, is unlikely to be effective unless followed by other support activities such as visits to other schools and peer support meetings.

Careful assessment of the resources and support necessary to carry out a given activity is particularly important. A great program may simply require more money, human power, or time than you have. Or you may not have the necessary support from administrators or teachers to carry it off. It's important to be realistic. On the other hand, if an idea is desired strongly enough the staff may find ways around seemingly insurmountable problems. Or they may start now to find ways to overcome them so as to implement the idea at a later date.

The actual number of activities will vary depending on the scope and complexity of the objective as well as contextual factors such as time and money. A broad goal such as "to develop norms of collegiality" lends itself to a variety of possible activities. A more focused objective such as "to learn alternative models of teaching" may suggest a narrower approach such as a year-long training program in models of teaching, including formation of peer support teams, monthly support sessions, and visits to other classrooms and schools.

We know that more elaborate systems of prioritizing and scoring possible solutions exist. However, we've found that in practice they are rarely used by school staff and rarely needed. Informal discussion with guiding questions to focus attention on the achievability and desirability of various options usually leads to a winnowing down of possibilities. The important thing is to talk them through.

Process:

1. Have participants evaluate proposed alternatives/solutions identified in Activity 3.
    - ☐ Individually complete Solution Review Worksheet for each professional development goal.
    - ☐ Chart and share responses, round robin fashion.
    - ☐ Clarify and elaborate rationale for responses.
    - ☐ As a group identify those viewed as most desirable and achievable by group members.
2. Have groups cluster activities where appropriate.
3. For each of the identified activity clusters, have participants complete the Solution Selection Worksheet. Do individually and then share results. Discuss implications.
4. If necessary to reduce the number of solutions, use the nominal group process or the multi-grouping technique described in Chapter 4, Activity 4.
    - ☐ Guiding question: Which ideas do you like the most? Why? The least? Why?
    - ☐ Come to consensus on those you will use.

Chapter 6, Activity 5

Tailoring Activities to Participants' Concerns

- Narrowing the Possibilities -

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to introduce a model of the change process that helps in designing and implementing staff development programs

Materials:

Copies for each participant of:

- ☐ Handout and Transparency:

  Stages of Concern

- ☐ Handouts:

  Concerns About an Innovation

  Examples of Stages of Concern Paragraphs

- ☐ Transparencies:

  Assumptions of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM)

  Fuller's Sequence of Concerns About Teaching

- ☐ Readings:

  Gene E. Hall and Susan F. Loucks. "Teacher Concerns as a Basis for Facilitating and Personalizing Staff Development," *Teachers College Record*, September 1978, Vol. 80, No. 1, pages 36-53.

- ☐ Newsprint and markers
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

If the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) has not yet been introduced to the staff development planners (one of the articles in Chapter 2, Activity 3, also listed above, does so), now is a good time. The CBAM is a model for change which focuses on the individual. It assumes that individuals grow in both their concerns about and their use of new programs, processes, and ideas, and that in order to facilitate that growth, one must tailor assistance to specific developmental needs. It recognizes and legitimizes differences in feelings and behavior of staff relative to a change. It also helps staff understand better the process of change and plan accordingly. Training in the model can involve a day-long awareness workshop or a several-day institute that introduces participants to a number of different instruments and tools they can use in their change efforts. Or a short overview, such as the one provided here, can sensitize people to the basic ideas in the CBAM so they can be used informally in thinking about and planning for change. Regardless, it is almost always a sure winner with staff because it touches them personally and is so pertinent to what they are doing. A useful primer, published by ASCD, is *Taking Charge of Change,* by Shirley Hord and her colleagues. Additional training can be arranged through the Northeast Regional Laboratory.

The process outlined below requires that you have some knowledge about the CBAM. The article enclosed in this guide is mainly for that purpose: to give you enough background to be able to make the presentation. It can also be shared with interested participants.

Process:

1. Begin by telling participants that you're going to share with them a model of the change process that helps them think about how change occurs and how it can be made less traumatic for all the people involved. Ask participants to complete the handout Concerns About an Innovation. Note that the word "innovation" is used here to refer to any new idea, program, practice, or process that requires new behaviors -- one that is new to the person, not necessarily new to education.

2. Show the transparency, Assumptions of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM). Explain that the Concerns-Based Adoption Model was first introduced in the early 1970's, a time of great change in education, by the University of Texas' Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. These are the assumptions upon which the model was based. Explain each:

   - "Process..." -- takes time and effort over time, can't happen overnight.
   - "Made by..." -- to say a school has changed, the individuals within it must change.
   - "Highly personal..." -- all of us experience change differently, depending on our experience, personality, circumstances, but...
   - "Entails developmental..." -- there do seem to be patterns to how people change, both in the feelings they have towards something new and in their knowledge and skill in using it -- developmental like Piaget and Maslow.
   - "Interventions..." -- the things we do to help people must first be related to where they are, then to what it is they're "using" or thinking about using.

3. Explain: Looking at the effect of change on individuals began in the late 1960s with the work of Frances Fuller on the concerns of teachers about teaching. Her work was in teacher education. She found that there was a developmental pattern to the feelings prospective teachers had about being teachers as they experienced their new role.

Show transparency, Fuller's Sequence of Concerns. Explain: until prospective teachers had the opportunity to get into classrooms, they had UNRELATED Concerns, i.e., their concerns were unrelated to teaching. They were concerned about getting a date for the concert, getting along with their roommate, passing Western Civilization. As they began to practice being a teacher -- got into student teaching -- they first had SELF Concerns, i.e., concerns about their ability to succeed in the job and about what that job really meant to them. They were concerned about whether their cooperating teacher would like them, whether they would like kids enough to be with them all day. As they had more experience and began to resolve their self concerns, their concerns changed to TASK Concerns, or concerns about how to manage what they were doing. They wondered why it was taking so long to prepare for tomorrow, where to get materials, why the kids always had their hands up. Later, as these concerns were resolved they began to have IMPACT Concerns, or concerns about how students were learning. In fact, few prospective teachers had impact concerns before graduating, but Fuller found them in inservice teachers (although there were many with task concerns as well).

4. Comment: Researchers at the Texas R&D Center tried to help universities redo their teacher training programs based on Fuller's work and soon realized that university professors expressed early, self concerns when confronted with the idea. This led to an expansion of the idea of concerns, looking at adopters of innovations in many different settings. They found, through additional research, that Fuller's stages actually represented seven different kinds of concerns.

5. Show transparency, Stages of Concern, and distribute handout, Stages of Concern. Talk through the stages. Make sure to point out that Stages 4-6 are all impact concerns: they are focused on what I/we can do to better reach learners. Also point out that it's okay to be at any stage; what's not okay is for people in responsible positions not to address whatever concerns people are experiencing.

6. Explain: There are three ways of assessing concerns. One way is through use of a 35-item questionnaire that can be used with any innovation (see the article for reference). The second is by being a good listener, and by probing for concerns when talking to someone. Another way is through written statements called Open-Ended Statements of Concern. We simply ask people to write a response to the statement, "When you think about _____, what are you concerned about?"

7. Distribute handout, Examples of Stages of Concern Paragraphs. These are some sample paragraphs that teachers write. Ask participants to determine the primary concerns for each. Answers: 2, 4, 3 (with a bit of 2).

8. Ask participants to return to handout, Concerns About an Innovation. Either in pairs, groups, or all together have them try to score the top part. "Real world" scoring is often harder than with exercises. Ask them to reflect on their own concerns. If they are at higher stages than the people they are working with, note that it's important to address those folk's concerns, not their own, when designing assistance. If their own concerns are personal and informational, note that it's important to recognize where you are too, and try to get the support you

need. Stages of Concern can form a common language to talk about how we're feeling and what we need to succeed in our work.

9. Explain: Why worry about concerns? One reason is it helps us plan how to introduce and support teachers and others in their efforts to change. We know that early in a change, people have information and personal concerns. They want to know, "What is it?" and "What does it mean for me?" When they first use something new, they are likely to have management concerns. With something significantly different, these concerns may last a couple of years. When those concerns are resolved and things smooth out, people either "plateau" out and don't have many identifiable concerns, or they develop higher stage concerns, where they're making changes for kids.

   Divide participants into seven groups of 2-5 people. Assign each group one Stage of Concern. The task of the group is to identify as many ways as they can to help someone whose primary concerns are at that stage. Remind people that there are many ways and sources for help. Give them 10-15 minutes and have them report their ideas on newsprint.

10. After group reports, discuss implications for their own work in staff development. If necessary, ask such questions as:

    ☐ What are ways we might introduce our plans to people?

    ☐ What should our timeline be for training and follow-up?

    ☐ Who should we talk to about concerns?

    ☐ What kinds of concerns do folks in our school have? How can we find out? How can we keep tabs on them?

    ☐ What kinds of concerns would we like people to have and by when?

11. Before closing, note that the Concerns-Based Adoption Model has several other dimensions to it in addition to Stages of Concern, including Levels of Use, which focus more on what people are doing. *Taking Charge of Change* is a good reference for the others.

115

Chapter 6, Activity 6

Selection and Use of Consultants

- Narrowing the Possibilities -

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to provide guidance in how to successfully select and use consultants to meet identified professional development objectives

Materials:

- ☐ Handout:

  Selecting and Using Consultants/Resource People Effectively

- ☐ Readings:

  Pat Roy. "A Consumer's Guide to Selecting Staff Development Consultants," *The Developer*, February 1987.

  Robert T. Fitzgibbon. "The Changing Role of Staff Development Consultants," *The Developer*, April 1987.

  Judy-Arin Krupp. "A Consultant's Perspective on Working in School Districts," *The Developer*, September 1987.

Trainer's Notes:

Successful use of a consultant means more than selecting someone good. It means matching their knowledge, skill, and style with your needs and staff; continued negotiation and planning for their use; and ongoing support and assistance for them. A consultant can be highly effective in one school and ineffective in another. This point may be obvious, but it doesn't always happen that a consultant's skills and knowledge are matched with a school's objectives. Personality or style can also make a difference. An informal, folksy style, for example, might simply not work with staff used to a more formal approach. It helps to see a person in action. Since this is often not possible, a phone call to schools where a potential consultant has worked can be useful in gathering more information regarding his or her knowledge and style.

A common tendency is to discard the role of planner once a consultant has been identified, but avoid the temptation. Continued negotiation is necessary to assure consultants' successful work. Good consultants will generally ask a lot of questions in order to accurately diagnose the needs, the audience, and prior experience. If they don't, be prepared to tell them. The more they know, the more likely a good match will be made. If the selection process has been thoughtful, this shouldn't be a problem. But struggles may occur. Well known consultants are sometimes arrogant and used to directing the show. While respecting their knowledge, the staff developer's responsibility is to be sure they understand and are responsive to *teachers'* needs. One consultant was very offended when the school planning team modified her agenda for a two-day follow-up on instructional strategies, saying she was used to getting paid as the expert and that she resented someone else tampering with her design. Her design, however, didn't match the emerging needs of the teachers (she proposed doing additional skills training and the staff knew that informal sharing and problem solving was what was needed). The team gently, yet firmly, expressed their belief in her expertise (as a facilitator as well as a trainer) but also in their own sensitivity to their staff. The modification was made, the consultant served in a facilitative rather than training role, and the program was a success. The team felt pleased with their negotiating skills, and the consultant was pleased with her emerging skills as a facilitator.

Consultants need to be treated well. Everyone appreciates thoughtfulness. Sensitivity to things such as jet lag, food and accommodation preferences, and needs for time alone are valued. Sometimes, in an effort to make the most use of consultants, they are overbooked. Constant socializing can result in exhaustion. Recognition of their need to think, relax, and prepare for the next day is important. Treating consultants well increases the likelihood that they will do well in the work they do with teachers.

Process:

1. Ask participants to read "A Consumer's Guide to Selecting Staff Development Consultants" and "The Changing Role of Staff Development Consultants."
2. Form triads. Discuss:
   - ☐ the most significant points in each article
   - ☐ the implications for planning
3. Assign each triad one or more of the following questions:
   - ☐ What are the most important characteristics of a consultant?
   - ☐ What variety of roles might a consultant play to meet the desired objective?
   - ☐ What are the advantages and disadvantages of outside versus inside consultants?
   - ☐ How can you be assured that a consultant is good?
4. Ask participants to read Selecting and Using Consultants/Resource People Effectively. If the workshop setting is one in which participants are ready to select consultants, identify people responsible for selecting consultants, and actually go through the steps suggested. If not, go to #5.
5. Ask participants to read "A Consultant's Perspective on Working in School Districts." Discuss what can be done to assist consultants and make their jobs easier as well as more successful.

Chapter 6, Activity 7

Developing an Action Plan

- Putting It All Together -

Time Required: 1 1/2 - 2 hours

Purpose:

- ☐ to develop a specific plan for implementation of the identified program(s) based on successful staff development practices

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

A Checklist for Planning a Staff Development Program

School Improvement Plan

A Sketch of Successful Staff Development Practices

Pre-Implementation Checklist

Trainer's Notes:

The outcome of this activity series should be a specific plan of what has to be done to actually carry out the activities identified in earlier activities. If it is developed thoughtfully, consciously applying good practices, it will undoubtedly be a good one. There is no preferred order to the use of materials presented here. We've found all to be useful in guiding the development of a plan that is likely to be successful.

We believe written plans are important for even the best planners. They are imperative if more than one person is involved. They serve as a visual reminder of what needs to be done. Of particular importance is the reference to successful staff development practices. It is critical that a plan reflect them and, while experienced and effective staff developers may intuitively act on this knowledge, many do not and we can all stand to be reminded. (Completion of A Sketch of Good Practices will help to ensure its application.) Application of these practices can make the difference between a successful program and one woefully inadequate. The promise in continued professional development of school staff is too great to allow shoddy programs to be conducted.

Process:

1. Ask participants to read and complete A Checklist for Planning a Staff Development Program. Check the status of their program plan(s). Note actions which have been taken and those which should be built into an action plan.

2. Identify the key components of the plan(s). Have participants develop a list of sequenced action steps needed to carry out the plan. Use attached sample format for guidance (School Improvement Plan).
3. Have participants review and complete A Sketch of Successful Staff Development Practices. Have them discuss how they plan to act on each of the practices. Modify the plan(s) if appropriate.
4. Use the Pre-Implementation Checklist as a check. Modify plan(s) if necessary. This can serve as a last minute check.

Chapter 6, Activity 8

Creative Pessimism

- Putting It All Together -

Time Required: 45-90 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to think creatively about potential problems that might be encountered during implementation and plan actions to counter them

Materials:

- ☐ Newsprint and markers

Trainer's Notes:

This is a wonderful activity to use with groups of a large enough size to form small groups. The small groups must be working on a common plan and should be large enough to allow for generation of a variety of ideas. It is fun and can also lead to some good suggestions of actions to avoid or obstacles to mitigate.

Process:

1. Introduce activity:

   It's sometimes useful to think of potential roadblocks in advance so you can plan to overcome them or at least be prepared for them. In 1976, a man named Michael Kean coined this "creative pessimism."

2. Form small groups (members must be working on a common plan). Each group (the "pessimists") huddles, and identifies the most serious obstacle which might impede their plan. They then prepare to present this to the rest of the group (the "optimists").
3. Each group presents its obstacle.
4. After each group presentation, the optimists:
   - ☐ Ask for clarification about the obstacle. How serious is it and how probable (high, medium, low)?
   - ☐ Brainstorm to the pessimists suggestions for preventive action. (All ideas are accepted, no "yeah, buts" from the pessimists allowed!)
   - ☐ Offer suggestions for contingency plans.
5. The pessimists then reflect on alternatives and identify some next steps.

120

CHAPTER 7

Responsive Evaluation of Staff Development Programs

Overview:

The Naturalistic Responsive Approach to Evaluation

The evaluation model and techniques provided in the pages that follow are applications of Egon Guba and Yvonna Lincoln's model for naturalistic and responsive approaches to evaluation and research. The strength of their model for schools lies in their characterization of the nature of reality. Naturalistic responsive models recognize that the "true story" about a program is not some objective reality but more an amalgamation of the values, beliefs, and understanding of people who are involved in the program. This model changes around our traditional thinking a bit. The aphorism which we are used to accepting is, "I'll believe it when I see it." A better aphorism may be, "I'll see it when I believe it." We are used to asking whether evaluation results are "valid." Perhaps we should be asking whether evaluation results are "believable." This model puts the audience for the evaluation first. We orient and focus our evaluation designs and activities to increase the chances that we answer the questions and concerns of those who have a stake or interest in the program.

If Evaluation Is the Answer, What Is the Question?

Most people agree that evaluation of professional development is necessary, yet there are few attempts to do more than measure "happiness coefficients" at the completion of workshops. With more and more calls for accountability, and with shrinking resources, staff developers are calling for approaches to evaluation that are practical, useful, yet rigorous enough to be believed.

Our intent in this section is to provide some ways of framing evaluation efforts and conducting them so that they are useful and believable. This material is addressed to nonevaluators, knowing that many staff developers must perform this function for themselves. We believe it is perfectly possible to ask good questions and develop the skills necessary to go about finding believable answers.

There are many possible evaluation questions to be asked of professional development programs. Some might ask, "How is the program going? Is the program being implemented the way it is supposed to be? Do we need to make any changes in the program?" While others might ask, "Do we need more or different resources? Is the program making any difference? Is the program responsible or at least related to those differences?" And still others might ask, "Do the differences we see constitute improvement?" An evaluation can answer some of these questions, some of the time. Seldom can a single evaluation answer all of these questions all at once.

Our assumption is that the purpose of evaluation is to aid decision making about the future of the program, i.e., its uses, changes and resources needed at any given time. To make these decisions, we need information regarding program processes and program effects. We need to know how program activities are being implemented and received by participants. We need to know whether the program is making any difference and to understand the relationship between those differences and program activities. Perhaps most importantly, we need to know whether those affected by the program think that it's an improvement. Do they value and appreciate the changes?

There are always more questions to answer than time and resources allow. Thus, evaluation questions have to be prioritized to fit the interests of audience(s) and the resources available.

Who Cares?.... Who Are the Audiences for the Evaluation?

The design, implementation, and reporting of an evaluation should be driven by the audience for the results. The usefulness of an evaluation will be directly related to whether it answers the questions of those who care -- those who have a vested interest in the success or failure of the program.

We have all had experience with evaluations that become one more piece of paper gathering dust in the program archives. Investment of time and energy with the audience in the earliest stages of evaluation design increases the chances that the evaluation will make a difference, that it will be attended to, and that the reports will actually guide decision making.

Representatives of all role groups potentially affected by the staff development program should be involved in formulating the questions and interpreting the answers. We need to answer the questions: Whose goals for the program will be evaluated? Who decides what the data mean? What decisions will be made using the data? Different groups/audiences will have different interests. Program staff might want to use the information to improve the program. State and federal officials might want to use the information to make global funding decisions. At the same time, teachers might want to use the information to help them understand the relationship between their new skills and their students' performance. The audience determines the issues to which the data will be related. They should determine what questions will be answered and whom the answers will be for.

The first and most important decision in mounting an evaluation is deciding whom it's for. This decision affects all that follows. Program and evaluation staff will likely have no difficulty generating a wide range of questions that they think are important and interesting; however, they are not the *only* audience for the evaluation. We define the audience of an evaluation as anyone who has a stake or interest in the program -- and these are likely to differ. People who are responsible for global decisions such as funding, continuation, expansion, or retraction are likely to be most interested in summary statements about program costs as related to impact and effects. They are likely to be less interested in the specific activities and processes of the program. On the other hand, teachers are likely to be most interested in the activities and their immediate impact on themselves and their students. They are interested in stories, details, and nuances of differences in process and outcomes.

Thus, in order to be sure that each audience's issues and concerns are addressed, representatives of each major audience should actively participate in framing the evaluation questions. They should play as large a role as time, resources, and other responsibilities will permit. Ask them,"What are your issues and concerns about the professional development program? What do you want to know more about? What decisions will the information serve?" Answers to such questions provide essential guidance as we design, carry out, and report the evaluation results back to them.

How Do We Know What It Means?

As soon as evaluators begin collating and analyzing their data, they must begin coping with the question, "What does it mean?" This question remains present throughout the analysis and reporting phases of evaluation, and provides useful information to guide decision making. The question of meaning relates to audience expectations for the program; their standards set the criteria against which the program will be judged.

In the model presented here, determination of evaluation questions, information collection, and analysis proceed in a cyclical manner, with frequent checking in with audiences' issues and concerns. Audience beliefs about standards for success and failure become one of the important pieces of information sought by evaluators on an ongoing basis. Only by doing so, can we be sure we are matching evaluation priorities and practices to the most pressing and current program demands and interests. It ensures that one is evaluating something that matters to the audience.

Evaluations are frequently criticized as being uninteresting, untimely, and uninformative. If we want to perform evaluations that raise understanding about the program and guide program improvement, we must be sure to answer the questions of those who are affected by the program, those who have a stake in the program, and those who have the power to make decisions about the program -- in other words, those who care.

A Final Note

We recognize that evaluation can be intimidating -- especially to those who have not formally studied methods and models or who have not received training and guidance from an accomplished evaluator. The concepts, strategies, and techniques presented here are likely to seem complicated and challenging. We argue that you don't necessarily have to be a highly trained evaluator to take your first tentative steps toward evaluating programs you care about -- toward finding out more about what's "really" happening within and around your programs.

Yet we recognize that evaluation is technical and requires focused attention. It requires knowledge and skills including a variety of forms of information collection, content analysis, and reporting. Thus, before undertaking use of these materials as a trainer yourself, we recommend that you do as much pre-reading and practice as possible using the materials and references here as a starting point. We do not recommend attempting to train others until you have tried it yourself. As with any new skill, when you try the techniques, gain experience, share with others, attend more training, and/or read more, you'll get better and better.

We have made every attempt to simplify, to strip away the jargon, while presenting concepts and strategies which will enable you to complete manageable evaluations. These evaluations will yield useful and believable results intended to guide program decision making and improvement. Throughout the exercises that follow, samples from a recent informal evaluation of a thinking skills project are included as a training resource. We have deliberately chosen a limited and simple example with the hope that it will inspire you to try it, beginning with something which is clearly defined, manageable in scope and can be done quickly. The evaluation from which these samples (interview data, content analysis, and report) are drawn required about six hours of focused attention by the evaluator.

You need not carry out exhaustive, time-consuming evaluations of *every* facet of your districtwide staff development programs. Improvement of staff development is well served by frequent, clearly defined, manageable "snap shots," like the samples provided here. Remember, some evaluation is better than none – provided it answers the questions of those who care.

Goals for This Chapter:

- ☐ to develop skills in identifying and responding to specific interests of stakeholding audiences
- ☐ to develop skills in planning and carrying out an evaluation cycle
- ☐ to develop qualitative information collection and analysis skills
- ☐ to develop survey building skills
- ☐ to develop reporting skills

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Describing the Program You Are Evaluating (45-60 minutes)

Activity 2: Involving Participants in the Evaluation Process (60 minutes)

Activity 3: Outcomes and Documentation Techniques (30-45 minutes)

Activity 4: Audiences and Their Concerns (3 hours)

Activity 5: Content Analysis: How to Make Sense of the Information as It is Collected (2 hours)

Activity 6: Developing Surveys to Verify and Quantify Emerging Themes (2-3 hours)

Activity 7: Reporting Evaluation Results (1-2 hours)

Chapter 7, Activity 1

Describing the Program You Are Evaluating

Time Required: 45-60 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to clarify the boundaries of the activities or sets of activities which one might wish to evaluate

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Describing the Program: Worksheet

  Sample Program Description
- ☐ Transparency:

  Evaluation Questions
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

The first step in initiating an evaluation is to get a clear and consensual picture of exactly what is to be evaluated and to decide who will respond to the evaluation results. Often evaluations lack usefulness because they answer questions that do not matter to the audience, or they look at too many or too few program activities. Thus, we start here with an orientation to define the specific staff development activities which will be evaluated. Almost simultaneously, we define the audiences for the results. (Information and exercises to define audiences are presented in Activity 3.) If the goal of evaluation is to raise the understanding of what's going on, and to aid decision making about the program, we need clarity on *what* we are evaluating and *who* it affects.

Before working with this material, we recommend that you read "Naturalistic Solutions to Methodological Problems," Chapter 5 in Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln, *Effective Evaluation: Improving the Usefulness of Evaluation Results Through Responsive and Naturalistic Approaches*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.

The exercises and presentations which follow will focus on clarifying the specific staff development activities which are to be evaluated.

Process:

1. *Evaluation Questions.* Present and discuss the material contained in the presentation outline and transparencies.
2. *Describing the Program.* Ask participants to group themselves within school or district teams. Think about your staff development program(s), focusing on specific activities, offerings, programs. Identify and describe specifically what you might want to evaluate. Using the worksheet provided, reach agreement on WHO is doing WHAT with WHOM. An example from the Thinking Skills Project has been provided as a resource.
3. After teams have completed the worksheet, spend a few minutes sharing with the larger group.

Evaluation Questions
Presentation Outline[1]

I. The first step in designing an evaluation is to clarify the audiences for the evaluation. Who cares about the program we are about to evaluate?

   A. Almost simultaneously, we should clarify just what it is that we are going to evaluate. We will be evaluating some specific services and/or activities involving specific people.

   B. We want evaluation approaches that are practical, useful, yet rigorous enough to be believed.

   C. "Nonevaluators" are often responsible for carrying out staff development program evaluation activities.

   D. We will focus on asking good questions and ways to discover valid (believable) answers.

II. Thus we start with questions....

   (TALK THROUGH TRANSPARENCY: *Evaluation Questions*)

   A. *Assumption:* Evaluation aims to raise the understanding of what's going on, and to aid decision making about the future of the program, i.e., its uses, changes, and resources needed at any given time.

   B. We need information about:

      1. Program processes and effects.

      2. How program activities are being implemented and received by participants.

      3. Whether the program is making any difference, and to understand the relationship between those differences and program activities. Whether people affected by the program think its an improvement.

III. There are always more questions than time/resources allow. Questions have to be prioritized to fit the interests of the audience(s) and resources available.

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[1] See *Continuing to Learn*, pp. 156-7, for more detail and references.

Chapter 7, Activity 2

Involving Participants in the Evaluation Process

Time Required: 60 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to develop an awareness of key decision points in an evaluation cycle
- ☐ to develop an understanding of the variety of ways that participants can be involved in key evaluation activities and decisions

Materials:

- ☐ Handout:

  A Worksheet for Information Collection
- ☐ Transparencies:

  Evaluation Process: Key Decisions

  A Worksheet for Information Collection

  Areas for Participant Involvement
- ☐ Reading:

  Continuing to Learn, pp. 164-170
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

The design, implementation, and reporting of an evaluation should be driven by the audience for the results. Often the most important audiences for staff development evaluations are the participants themselves. Participants in staff development programs are likely to become more committed and more involved in the goals and activities of the program if they are key participants in the evaluation activities as well. The usefulness of an evaluation is directly related to whether it answers the questions of those who care -- those who have a vested interest in the success or failure of the program. Program participants are likely to care as much about the program as do program sponsors. Program participants are also likely to provide the richest source of information about program processes and effects. Thus, we argue they should be involved in the evaluation activities as much as possible.

The presentations, reading, and exercises which follow provide an overview of the evaluation cycle followed by discussion of specific ways that participants might be directly and indirectly involved in the evaluation process.

Process:

1. *The Evaluation Process -- Key Decisions.* Present and discuss the material contained in the attached presentation outline and transparencies.
2. *Involving Participants in the Evaluation Process.* Present and discuss the material contained in the attached presentation outline and transparencies.

   Prior to this presentation and discussion, you may want to assign some reading. We recommend pages 164-170 of *Continuing to Learn* and the articles listed below.
3. *Planning to Involve Participants.* Using the handout A Worksheet for Information Collection, generate a plan which details the ways that participants might be involved in specific evaluation activities. Work in small groups of 2-3. Have groups share ideas with the larger group.

Resources:

Ayers, Toby. (1987). "Stakeholders as Partners in Evaluation: A Stakeholder-Collaborative Approach." *Evaluation and Program Planning,* 10: 263-271.

Crosby, Jeannie. (1982). "Participation in Evaluation as Staff Development." *Journal of Staff Development,* 3 (1): 147-155.

The Evaluation Process: Key Decisions
Presentation Outline[2]

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Evaluation Process*)

I. Agree on the evaluation questions.

   A. What does each audience want to know? Be sure to include key people in generation of evaluation questions.

   B. Prioritize and trim to fit time and resources.

   C. You should already be doing some data collection at this stage, interviewing key stakeholders about their concerns and interests. Document analysis (i.e., program descriptions, proposals, etc.) will also provide leads for important evaluation questions.

II. Determine information needs and collection methods.

   (GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *A Worksheet for Information Collection*)

   A. For each evaluation question you will generate Information Sources, Data Collection Method, Responsibility, and Timeline.

   B. There are four major information collection methods – interviews, surveys, observation, and document analysis of archival data. We present interviews and surveys as the most often used and highest yielding methods. However, it is important to consider observation and document analysis. These strategies are often useful for filling out the details of emerging themes. (See Four Techniques for Assessment for detailed information on information collection methods, included in Chapter 5.)

   (RETURN TO TRANSPARENCY: *Evaluation Process*)

III. Collect and analyze information.

   A. Begin analysis as soon as possible, and continue analysis as more information is collected.

   B. Helps to adjust information collection methods if information is not what you expected.

   C. Helps to identify emerging issues and questions.

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[2] See *Continuing To Learn* pp. 167-170, for more detail and references.

IV. Report.

A. Tailor to audience purposes and interests.

B. No one report will meet needs/interests of all audiences.

V. Looping back.

A. Revisit earlier stages, e.g., add new questions, refine data collection methods. Build surveys to verify conclusions which are tentatively being reached.

B. Recycling, e.g., annual reporting. Reconsider questions which were dropped off priority list or emerged during this cycle.

Involving Participants in the Evaluation Process
Presentation Outline[3]

I. Involving program staff and participants

  A. They always have a significant interest.

  B. They have depth of information and understanding to assure accurate, meaningful results.

  C. Involvement of participants can contribute directly to program goals through increased ownership of the program, understanding and reflection on the goals.

  (GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Areas for Participant Involvement*)

II. Areas for participant involvement

  A. Clarifying goals and success indicators

  B. Designing the study

  C. Developing methods of information collection

  D. Collecting/supplying information

  E. Analyzing information

  F. Reporting learnings

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[3] See *Continuing to Learn*, pp. 164-66 and Crosby citation.

Chapter 7, Activity 3

Outcomes and Documentation Techniques

Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to raise awareness of the variety of outcomes which might be possible and the techniques which might be used to document or "measure" them
- ☐ to identify outcomes associated with the staff development activities to be evaluated
- ☐ to explore appropriate techniques to measure or document those outcomes

Materials:

- ☐ Handout:

  Identifying Expected Outcomes and Measurement Techniques: Worksheet
- ☐ Transparency:

  Evaluating Program Outcomes
- ☐ Reading:

  Continuing to Learn, pp. 156-158
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

There are many kinds of outcomes which can result from staff development programs. We have identified *changes in participants, changes in organizational capacity,* and *changes in students,* as the most frequently found outcomes of staff development programs. Within these types of outcomes, there are many more specific and discrete outcomes which might be identified, documented, and measured.

In the presentation and exercises that follow, participants will be introduced to a variety of outcomes and measurement techniques. Participants will then practice identifying outcomes associated with programs familiar to them and will explore techniques for documentation and measurement.

Process:

1. *Evaluating Program Outcomes.* Present and discuss material contained in the presentation outline and transparencies.

2. *Identifying Expected Outcomes and Measurement Techniques.* Ask small groups to identify the intended outcomes associated with their staff development program. Ask them to think about unintended outcomes which they have observed. Record all outcomes identified on Identifying Expected Outcomes and Measurement Techniques: Worksheet. Once the outcomes have been identified, generate a number of alternative ways to measure or document those outcomes.

   When each group has completed the task, ask a spokesperson to present the highlights of the group's work to the larger group.

Resources:

Cooke, M.M. (1985). "A Progress Report That Counts," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.

Loucks, S. F., and M. Melle. (1982). "Evaluation of Staff Development: How Do You Know it Took?" *Journal of Staff Development*, 3(1): 102-117.

Evaluating Program Outcomes
Presentation Outline[4]

I. Types of outcomes

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Evaluating Program Outcomes*)

A. Changes in participants

1. Changes in participants are the most direct and immediate outcomes and therefore easiest to document, measure, and relate to program activities.

2. There are three kinds of changes which can occur in participants as a result of staff development.

a. *Changes in participants' knowledge base:*

Question: Do they know something new?

Measured by: pre-post test, surveys/interviews

b. *Changes in skill level and use:*

Question: Do they demonstrate some new skills/ behaviors?

Measured by: self-assessment checklist, interviews/surveys, supervision/observation notes; Levels of Use measures (see Resources for background reading)

c. *Changes in attitudes, opinions, feelings:*

Satisfaction with the activities themselves is the most frequently measured outcome of staff development programs. Most training sessions are closed with the traditional "feel good" surveys. While useful, they are not enough.

Other changes in attitudes/feelings should be considered.

Questions:

- ☐ Are they concerned about a new topic?
- ☐ Are they building a sense of community/ownership in the program?
- ☐ Are they increasing their sense of efficacy?

(Refer to the critical attributes of staff development programs for more ideas.)

Measured by:

- ☐ satisfaction scales,

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[4] See *Continuing to Learn*, pp. 156-7.

- ☐ interviews/surveys (e.g., Stages of Concern measures),
- ☐ document analysis (e.g., lesson plans, memos, etc.),
- ☐ unobtrusive measures (documentation of informal discussions, unsolicited testimonials, evidence of increased ideas/material sharing, higher levels of volunteerism/participation)

B. Changes in organizational capacity

1. Refer to the critical attributes of staff development programs for ideas about outcomes in this area.
2. Things to look for might include:

a. *Increasing collaboration/collegiality:*

Questions:

- ☐ Can you see a willingness to examine, alter, abandon old practices? Test new practices?
- ☐ Can you see a willingness to expose knowledge, skills, and experiences to the scrutiny of others?

b. *Expanding roles of participants:*

Question: Are teachers taking on significant non-teaching roles (e.g., training, evaluating, planning, developing curriculum, leading discussions)?

Measured by:

Changes in organizational capacity are best "measured" by qualitative techniques; observations, survey/interview, document analysis, unobtrusive measures.

These kinds of changes are not likely to be very quantifiable; they are hard to reduce to numbers.

C. Changes in students

1. Decision makers often want information on student progress regarding the new practices/techniques.

Questions: Are students learning? Doing better? Doing what we expected?

It is often difficult to draw causal connections, especially if student performance standards are not explicitly articulated within program activities. And even if they are, it still takes TIME. Research tells us that it takes 3-5 years for changes to really take hold.

Measured by: formal/informal test scores, student products, surveys/interviews, observations, checklists

II. Unintended outcomes

A. It is also important to consider unintended outcomes, both beneficial and detrimental. Ask questions that will at least provide information about unanticipated happenings and consequences and attempt to reach some judgments as to whether they are desirable.

B. How to discover unintended outcomes?

1. Use the list above to prompt ideas.
2. Think about various audiences affected and ask them about their issues and concerns about the program.
3. Use the information that you find. Problem-solve the detrimental outcomes, and build-in intentionality around the positive outcomes.

Chapter 7, Activity 4

Audiences and Their Concerns

Time Required: 3 hours.

(*Note*: We recommend that this section be presented in two parts, allowing time for reading about interviewing before engaging in Process Step 5.)

Purpose:

- to develop an understanding that the utility of an evaluation is related to the degree to which it answers the questions of the people who care
- to anticipate the different issues and concerns associated with different stakeholding audiences
- to develop an understanding of the different purposes for evaluation
- to develop interviewing skills
- to develop an understanding of and a plan for verifying audiences' issues and concerns for evaluation

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Identifying Audiences, Their Purposes, Issues, and Concerns: Worksheet

  Identifying Audiences, Their Purposes, Issues, and Concerns: The Thinking Skills Project

  Sample Interview Protocol

  A Worksheet for Information Collection (from Activity 2)

- Transparencies:

  The Personal Factor

  Ways to Identify Key Audiences

  Selecting Respondents

  Purposes of Evaluation

  Relationship Between Process and Outcome

  Difference Between Impact and Improvement

Interviewing for What People Care About (3 transparencies)

- ☐ Readings:

  Continuing to Learn, pp. 160-163, 170-172

  Michael Q. Patton. "Qualitative Interviewing," *Qualitative Evaluation Methods,* Sage, Beverly Hills, CA, 1980.

- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Focusing on audiences' concerns and issues is extremely important. A useful evaluation is one that answers the questions of those who care about the program being evaluated. Evaluators need to go beyond their own assumptions about the purposes, issues, and concerns. They need to verify their assumptions and understandings by interviewing key representatives of important audiences. They need to ask unbiased and open-ended questions about the program, which will yield in-depth information in respondents' *own words.* Often program sponsors or trainers will use very different words to describe activities and outcomes related to a staff development program. It is essential to find out what words are used by others affected by the program: to know how they describe the program, what they think it is for, what they worry about, what they disagree with, and what they think its effects are.

As we begin to approach the more technical aspects of evaluation, such as interviewing and content analysis, the "amateur" evaluator will experience a greater challenge. We recommend additional reading, training, and feedback. Yet, we believe that one can "muddle through" with relatively good success, by paying close attention to the real concerns and issues of the audiences for the evaluation. With practice, participants will discover their own ways to collect and analyze their information so that it is believable to the ultimate "receivers" of the results.

Before working with this material, we recommend that you read two pieces: "Identifying Key Issues and Concerns," Chapter 10 in Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln, *Effective Evaluation: Improving the Usefulness of Evaluation Results Through Responsive and Naturalistic Approaches,* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981 and "Qualitative Interviewing," Chapter 7 in Michael Q. Patton, *Qualitative Evaluation Methods,* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.

In the presentations, readings, and exercises that follow, participants practice identifying their audiences, anticipating and verifying audience concerns and issues, and developing an interview protocol and an action plan for interviewing key members of their audiences.

Process:

1. *Working with a Variety of Interest Groups.* Present and discuss the content contained in the presentation outline and transparencies (The Personal Factor, Ways to Identify Key Audiences, Selecting Respondents).

2. *Identifying Audiences and Anticipating their Issues, Concerns, and Purposes.* Hand out Worksheet: Identifying Audiences, Their Purposes, Issues, And Concerns. Using a program which was previously described, ask small groups to generate a list of audiences. For each audience, the group should then brainstorm likely interests/evaluation questions. What does each audience want to know? What are their expectations, hopes, concerns about the program and its intentions? When groups have completed their work, have them share a few examples. Point out the differences among various audiences. Make special note that the evaluation questions should go beyond those that are relevant to the sponsors and/or trainers themselves.

   If the groups need a little help generating audiences, here is a sample list:

   - ☐ School board
   - ☐ Superintendent/central office
   - ☐ School principal
   - ☐ Teachers
   - ☐ Students
   - ☐ Parent/community members
   - ☐ Trainers/ program deliverers
   - ☐ State Department of Education consultants

   A worksheet for audiences of the Thinking Skills Project is provided as an example if needed.

3. *Purposes for Evaluation.* Present and discuss the content contained in the attached presentation outline and transparencies (Purposes of Evaluation, Relationship Between Process and Outcome, Difference Between Impact and Improvement).

4. *Interviewing to Determine and Verify Audience Concerns and Issues.* If participants are unfamiliar with interviewing techniques, before doing this exercise they should read "Qualitative Interviewing," Chapter 7 in Michael Q. Patton, *Qualitative Evaluation Methods.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.

   Thus far we have been anticipating – making guesses -- about what our audiences think. It is best to go out and talk to key people to find out what they care about – to hear it and record it *in their own words.* Later, when the results are reported and they hear their own words, they will probably feel that they have, indeed, been listened to. They are likely to find the evaluation results more believable.

   In preparation for developing interview protocols, use the presentation outline to present and discuss information contained in Interviewing to Determine Audience Concerns and Issues. Use three transparencies, Interviewing for What People Care About.

Ask each group to develop a specific action plan and a protocol for interviewing specific representatives for each audience, for the purpose of determining and/or verifying each audience's important concerns and issues regarding the program and its effects. To assist them in developing a protocol, hand out Sample Interview Protocol.

NOTE: Interviewing skills will be used again when participants enter the data collection stage of their work.

5. *Prioritizing Evaluation Questions.* Instruct groups to look at the issues, concerns, and purposes they have generated for each audience. What is their focus? Is it formative or summative? Is it process or outcome?

   Now turn them into evaluation questions. Examine the questions and assign a purpose to each one (i.e., formative, summative, process, or outcome). Prioritize questions to be addressed by this evaluation cycle, clarify the scope of the evaluation, and make a determination regarding the primary purpose of the evaluation were these questions to be pursued.

6. *Generating an Information Collection Plan.* Using the questions which have been generated and prioritized in Step 4 and 5 above, fill in appropriate columns in A Worksheet for Information Collection (from Activity 2). Remember to think about involvement of participants and other audiences as you determine information sources and responsibilities.

Working With a Variety of Interest Groups (Audiences) Presentation Outline[5]

I. Who cares?

  A. Introduce and discuss the concept of multiple audiences.

  B. Evaluation should be driven by the audience for the report(s).

  C. The utility of an evaluation is related to the degree to which it answers the questions of those who care.

  (GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *The Personal Factor*.)

  D. *The personal factor* is most important to the impact of evaluations.

  E. Evaluation will make impact when there is:

    1. a decision maker who has clear questions

    2. an evaluator who is committed to answering those questions

    3. a decision maker who is committed to using the answers (Patton, 1982).

II. How do you know who cares?

  A. Consider the issues and concerns of all role groups (stakeholders) potentially affected by the staff development program.

  B. Get them involved as much as possible in formulating the questions and interpreting the answers.

  C. As you identify your audiences, you are zeroing in on:

    1. Whose goals for the program will be evaluated?

    2. Who will decide what the data mean?

    3. What decisions will be made using the data?

  D. For example:

    1. *Program staff* might want to use the information to improve the program.

    2. *State and federal officials* might want to use the information to make global decisions about continuation and funding.

    3. *Teachers* might want to use the information to help them understand the relationship between their new skills and their students' performance.

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[5] See *Continuing to Learn*, pp. 160, 170-172 and Guba and Lincoln, Chapter 10.

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Ways to Identify Key Audiences.*)

III. Two ways to identify key audiences (stakeholders)

  A. With the program being evaluated clearly in mind, think about the following:

    1. program *producers*

      a. Who developed the program?

      b. Who provided funds and other resources (e.g., facilities, supplies, materials)?

      c. Who identified the need to which the program is a response?

      d. Who decided to apply it?

      e. Who contracted for the evaluation?

    2. program *benefactors*

      a. Who are the direct beneficiaries of the program?

      b. Who are the indirect beneficiaries?

      c. Who might be persuaded to adopt or adapt the program?

    3. *losers*, i.e., those who may be threatened or disturbed by program activities

      a. Who is systematically excluded from the benefits?

      b. Who sees negative side effects?

      c. Who suffers political disadvantage as a result of use of the program (Guba and Lincoln, 1981)?

OR....

  B. With the program being evaluated clearly in mind, think about:

    1. Who has *expertise* in the area addressed by the program?

    2. Who has *jurisdiction* on decisions in the area?

    3. For whom are the program activities most *relevant* (Owens, 1970)?

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Selecting Respondents.*)

IV. Selecting respondents:

  A. Draw a purposive or theoretical sample (rather than random).

  B. Seek to optimize the information return.

  C. Ask each respondent to nominate another who thinks very differently.

D. Stop when:
  1. sources are exhausted
  2. information is redundant
  3. resources are exhausted

Purposes for Evaluation
Presentation Outline[6]

I. What do you want to know? What decisions are being served?

  A. Focusing on general purposes and directions provides a helpful advance organizer for designing the evaluation.

  B. Note that one can seldom achieve all of the purposes in one evaluation.

  C. There are always some questions that cannot be pursued due to lack of time and resources.

  D. Remember that evaluation is cyclical and evaluation questions which dropped off the priority list (as well as questions that emerge during the evaluation process) can be picked up later.

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Purposes Of Evaluation.*)

II. Evaluation purposes

Though your audiences will seldom think in terms of these purposes, their questions will often cluster in one of these categories.

  A. Formative:

    1. Information to serve improvements along the way

    2. Describe activities/events to increase understanding in order to improve program

    3. To help us decide what to do next

  B. Summative:

    1. Information to serve global decisions or to simply answer the question, "How'd we do this year?"

    2. To help us decide if the program should continue, funding, major changes (i.e., structural)

  C. Process:

    1. Information on how activities were implemented and under what conditions

      a. What activities were carried out?

      b. Are activities being implemented correctly/according to plan?

      c. Any unusual circumstances or events which effected implementation?

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[6] See *Continuing to Learn* pp. 161-3.

d. How are participants reacting to activities?

D. Outcome:

1. Information on specific differences, changes (anticipated/unanticipated)
2. What difference are the activities making? What changes are there? At what level/to what degree?

E. Judgment:

1. Information on whether audiences believe its an improvement or not
2. Is this what we expected? wanted?

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Relationship Between Process And Outcome)*

III. What is the relationship between process and outcome?

A. Do you want to be sure the program is being implemented correctly or do you want to know what difference it is making?

1. Process = implemented as planned? Extent to which program has been realized?
2. Outcomes = changes

B. Evaluations should try to determine the relationship between what we are doing -- the program (process) and the changes observed in participants (outcomes).

1. Can't be certain about causality
2. Can make reasonable estimates that are better than hope and good intentions

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Difference Between Impact And Improvement*.)

IV. What is the difference between impact and improvement?

A. Impact asks: Is something different.......... empirical information

More limited question

B. Improvement asks: Is it better...... value judgement of each audience. Questions of right and wrong, better or worse are not simple empirical questions.

C. Patton (1982) suggests that we begin with the question, "Are participants different?" not, "Are they better?"

1. Has the program been effective in changing teachers?
2. Do they think differently?

3. Can they do things now that they couldn't do before?
4. Do they feel differently?
5. Are different things occurring in teachers, in classrooms?

D. Data from these questions can then be used to determine whether or not such changes and differences constitute progress or improvement.

Interviewing to Determine Audience Concerns and Issues Presentation Outline [7]

I. Initial interviews seek to obtain information about concerns, issues, descriptors, contextual factors and values. Each is defined below.

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Interviewing for What People Care About: Concerns and Issues*)

II. Concern

- A. *Definition*: any matter of interest
    1. threat
    2. undesirable consequence
    3. claim (something to be substantiated or verified)
    4. interests
    5. outcomes and intents (consequences)
- B. *Evaluation task* = Confirm/disconfirm; illuminate/illustrate

III. Issue

- A. *Definition*: opinions of two or more persons which may:
    1. conflict, involve different points of view
    2. disagree, any point of contention
- B. *Evaluation task* = Aid in understanding two or more sides of an issue; help to resolve or reduce the conflict

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Descriptor and Contextual Factors.*)

IV. Descriptor

- A. *Definition:* a perception about some element related to the program.
    1. respondent's description of what he or she thinks is occurring
    2. may be faulty
    3. describes "how it works"

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[7] See Guba and Lincoln, Chapter 10.

B. *Evaluation task* = Check for factual accuracy (inaccuracies are immediately reported back to audiences) and pick up the natural language of respondents

V. Contextual factors

A. *Definition:* environmental scanning

1. a force or constraint that compels or inhibits some action
2. is beyond the power of persons dealing with the program to control
3. intervening variables

B. *Evaluation task* = Identify and describe their impact or influence on program

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Values.*)

VI. Values

A. *Definition:* principles and standards that lead to judgments of:

1. relative or absolute utility
2. goodness
3. importance
4. guides choices among alternatives
5. fundamental basis for evaluative judgments.

B. *Evaluation task* = Discover the contextual values, determine whether they are consensual or pluralistic, and take account of existing values when making judgment or recommendations. Clarify the value structure and make it apparent to each audience.

VII. Methodology for initial interviews/Identifying concerns and issues

A. Orienting the respondent to the evaluation

(Hand out and refer to sample interview protocol.)

B. Interview protocol:

1. Build rapport/comfort:
    a) Ask respondent to talk about self. For example: How do you happen to be filling the role of...? What is a typical day like for you?
2. Help respondent orient mind with respect to the program being evaluated (warming up) (will likely yield *descriptors*)

   a) Ask respondent to describe the program, how it is used, actual conditions and operations involved in its application (as seen from respondent's perspective)

   b) Identify descriptors

3. Questions about respondent's *Concerns and Issues*:

   a) Any problems with the program

   b) What good is likely to come of it

   c) What bad effect it might it have

   d) Agreement with the claims made for it? (Consider spelling out specific claims if you know what they are.)

   e) As your knowledge grows and themes emerge, add specific questions. Reserve such questions until the respondent has already volunteered whatever he or she can, and when such specific questions can be asked without biasing the voluntary report. (Consider saving until your first summary)

4. Summarize what respondent has said and ask for verification.

   a) Is that what you intended to tell me?

   b) Have I misunderstood in some way?

   c) Are there other things you would like to add?

5. Ask for recommendations for other audiences and respondents.

   a) Who can tell me more about these problems?

   b) Who would take a very different view than you have about what we have talked about?

   c) Are there persons who have some extended knowledge of these matters?

Chapter 7, Activity 5

Content Analysis

How to Make Sense of Information as It is Collected

Time Required: 2 hours

Purpose:

- to develop skills in identifying and elaborating themes as they emerge from data collection activities
- to generate additional data collection requirements based upon emerging themes and questions

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Teacher Interview from the Thinking Skills Project: An Example of Unitizing

  Thinking Skills Project Interviews: An Example of Content Analysis

  A Worksheet for Information Collection (from Activity 2)
- Transparency:

  Content Analysis: Unitizing and Analyzing
- Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Again, we tread into a fairly technical realm, but are confident that the fearless will quickly find their own techniques to add to the content analysis techniques offered here. You may use 3x5 cards, computer data bases, or outlining programs to manipulate the data you have collected. Strategies to tease themes and patterns out of a body of information are as individualistic as are the people using them. We recommend courage and a willingness to be confused for a while. It takes time to engage in the review and thinking process necessary to sort out the themes and patterns found in a mass of unorganized information.

Before working with this material, we recommend you read "Methodology of Content Analysis" and "Eliciting Concerns and Issues," in Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln, *Effective Evaluation: Improving the Usefulness of Evaluation Results Through Responsive and Naturalistic Approaches*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.

In the presentations, readings, and exercises which follow, participants learn about one method for content analysis, practice identifying themes with a common data set, and design an additional data collection plan to pursue emerging themes.

Process:

1. *Content Analysis Techniques.* Present and discuss the content contained in the presentation outline and transparency.
2. *Practice with a Common Data Set.* Hand out Teacher Interview from the Thinking Skills Project: An Example of Unitizing. Ask participants to pull out the themes and identify concerns, issues, and descriptors. You may wish to have them identify contextual factors and values as well. You may find it useful to suggest that participants focus on finding examples of outcomes or impact descriptions of challenges encountered.

   For a portion of the completed analysis of the Interviews, hand out and discuss Thinking Skills Project Interviews: An Example of Content Analysis.
3. *Developing an Information Collection Plan to Pursue Specific Themes.* Given the themes identified in Step 2, generate a more focused set of questions and data collection activities intended to clarify and elaborate on themes. Again use A Worksheet for Information Collection (from Activity 2).
4. *Developing Thematic Interview Protocols.* Develop an interview protocol to elaborate on specific themes for specific audiences. Use the protocol provided in Activity 3 (Sample Interview Protocol) and the Interview from the Thinking Skills Project included in this activity as models.

Content Analysis Techniques
Presentation Outline[8]

NOTE: This material is fairly technical. If you are not familiar and/or practiced in the techniques of content analysis, it is recommended that you read the Guba and Lincoln material thoroughly before making the presentation.

I. Developing categories and themes (using them to unitize)

  A. Must reflect the *purposes* of the research, must relate to the evaluation questions.

  B. Must be *exhaustive*. Can eventually place each datum in one category or another. Or decide that the datum doesn't relate to purposes/questions.

  C. Must be *mutually exclusive*. No datum can fit into more than one category

  D. Must be *independent*. Separate two-prong items.

  E. Must be derived from a *single classification principle*. Levels of analysis that are conceptually different must be kept separate (manifest-latent problem).

II. A step by step guide to unitizing and analyzing for content:

  (GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Content Analysis: Unitizing and Analyzing*)

  A. Step 1. Unitizing the interviews and other source materials

    1. Any item of information that can be construed as a *descriptor, concern, issue, contextual factor, or value* should be abstracted onto a separate 3x5 card.

    2. Cross reference each item to source (interview or document).

    3. Assign preliminary category: *descriptor, concern, issue, contextual factor, value.*

  B. Step 2. Categorizing: Sorting cards (items) into look-alike piles

    1. Use miscellaneous pile for items which do not immediately fit existing categories. They will be checked again later to see if any new categories have emerged within the miscellaneous pile.

  C. Step 3. Titling (characterizing) the piles

    1. Give each pile a title or name that catches the "essence."

    2. Assess set of categories for relationships. Can you combine or break them into separate elements? Can some be subsumed under more generic ones?

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[8] See Guba and Lincoln, pp. 240-246 and 311-320.

3. Assess items in miscellaneous pile to decide whether they are captured by any of the refined headings or whether they suggest a new category. Some may remain in miscellaneous pile.

D. Step 4. Assessing the category set

1. Should be internally homogeneous (unidimensional and as "look alike" as possible) and externally heterogeneous (different as possible from category to category).
2. Should be inclusive (account for all the information collected), i.e., there is a small or nonexistent miscellaneous category.

E. Back To Steps 1 - 3. Making preliminary adjustments

1. Note particular categories that seem to be called for by the logic of the set, but have not yet emerged *(predicted categories).*
2. Note categories that appear to be incomplete *(incomplete categories).*
3. Key further data collection into these categories.

III. Getting more data: Member checks

A. Reinterview same respondents or new ones. Clarify and elaborate emerging themes.

B. Categories are only as good as their credibility to the audiences involved.

C. Test categories against perceptions of audience members in two steps.

1. Draw sample from initial respondents -- reinterview. Ask them to comment on factual accuracy and credibility of interpretation. Ask them to nominate others who have similar ideas.
2. Ask nominated group to evaluate initial analysis. Ask them to comment on factual accuracy and credibility of interpretation from their point of view.

IV. Recycling

A. Establish beyond doubt that you have tapped all the stakeholding audiences (for this program).

B. Triangulate all information that is in some way suspect.

C. Further refine categories of descriptors, concerns, and issues, and elaborate details.

D. Check that the data are convincing.

Chapter 7, Activity 6

Developing Surveys to Verify and Quantify Emerging Themes

Time Required: 2-3 hours

Purpose:

- ☐ to understand the use of surveys to verify and/or quantify emerging themes
- ☐ to build skills in survey development

Materials:

- ☐ Handout:

  Sample Survey
- ☐ Transparencies:

  Key Points for Surveys

  Survey Design
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Up to this point we have explored collecting and analyzing information gathered from interviews. Interviews provide thick descriptions of what is going on around and inside a staff development program. If interview respondents are carefully chosen they can provide a substantial amount of information about how things are working and why. Even more important, perhaps, they provide descriptions of program processes and outcomes in their own natural language. When themes and learnings are drawn from an interview analysis, the evaluator has a good start toward designing a "grounded" questionnaire or survey which can be used with a much larger group of people. The survey provides the breadth of information that is often needed to convince skeptics, bureaucratic agencies, and other audiences who feel that numbers make information more believable.

Before presenting this section, we recommend that you read: "Validating and Prioritizing," in Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln, *Effective Evaluation: Improving the Usefulness of Evaluation Results Through Responsive and Naturalistic Approaches*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981, and "Questionnaire Design," in H. F. Weisberg and B. D. Bowen, *An Introduction to Survey Research and Data Analysis*, San Francisco: W. H. Freeman & Co., 1977.

In the presentations, reading, and exercises that follow, participants are provided with guidelines for survey development and practice developing their own survey from a common set of data previously analyzed (in Activity 5).

Process:

1. *Developing a Survey*. Present and discuss the content contained in the presentation outline and transparencies.

   Use the Sample Survey to illustrate your points as you present the material.

2. *Survey Development*. Return to the common data set and theme building activity pursued in the last Activity. Look at the themes and emerging hypotheses. Develop survey items which might verify or quantify those tentative conclusions with a wider audience.

   Encourage participants to develop as many different items, scales, checklists as they can imagine. The purpose here is to explore the range of possibilities for survey items, based upon previous qualitative analysis.

   After completing this activity, briefly discuss how to select and word items carefully in order to assure valid responses which answer the questions you really want answered.

Developing a Survey
Presentation Outline[9]

I. Why Do a Survey?

A. Interviews give you depth. Surveys or questionnaires give you breadth. Interviews give you deep, thick descriptions about what a few "representative" people believe. Surveys can tell you how many people believe the same things, to what extent, and how much they care.

1. The purpose is to create a questionnaire which is grounded in the thematic information collected from respondents.

2. Suggested formats:

A questionnaire or survey can be developed from the tentative learnings or conclusions drawn from a content analysis of interview data. The survey items can capture the essence of the descriptors, issues and concerns of interview respondents, and collect information from a larger group regarding their sense of the *validity and priority* of the items presented.

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Key Points for Surveys*)

B. Key Points for Surveys

1. *To rate validity*

a. Use a 3 to 7 point scale.

b. Label the scale with attributes which suggest validity, agreement, truth, degree, etc.

c. You are attempting to find out whether a statement validly describes the respondent's perceptions of reality; perhaps you are attempting to find out to what extent or degree something is true.

d. Items with low validity should be eliminated from further consideration.

e. Items that indicate conflict between different audiences deserve further study.

2. *Prioritizing issues and concerns*

a. Respondent indicates on a 3 to 7 point scale the absolute priority of the item.

3. *Take questionnaire items seriously when:*

a. All audiences agree about its reality and/or high priority.

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[9] See Guba and Lincoln, pp. 319-320, and Weisberg and Bowen (1977).

   b. Audiences disagree about reality or priority.
   c. If all audiences agree that an item lacks validity or is of low priority, it can be safely disregarded.

4. Survey items may be designed to verify, prioritize, quantify or query a larger group of respondents than could realistically be interviewed. Survey items which are "grounded" in the natural language of interview respondents are likely to elicit very useful and believable data for those who care about the program.
   a. Survey items that *verify* might be statements which prompt respondents to agree or disagree.
   b. Survey items that *prioritize* might list certain elements or aspects of the program which prompt respondents to rate in terms of importance.
   c. Survey items that *quantify* might provide checklists of other program aspects, e.g., characteristics, outcomes, processes, which prompt respondents to simply check off.
   d. Survey items that *query* might be open-ended, seeking specific information in areas where greater understanding of the program is still needed.

II. Questionnaire Design

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Survey Design*)

A. The Wording of Questions

1. *Spell out precisely what you want to learn from the questions.* Formulate Evaluation Questions for the study and keep them in mind. (Evaluation questions are like "objectives/ goals" for the study.)
   a. What is it that I really want to know?
   b. How will I use this information when I get it?
   c. What is the purpose of this question?
   d. Does it accomplish that purpose?

2. *Reliability and Validity*
   a. *Reliable* = Question evokes consistent responses.
   b. Avoiding *Ambiguous and Unreliable* answers.
      1) Avoid *double-barreled* questions that ask two questions at once, e.g., "Do you favor reducing American use of gasoline by increasing our taxes on foreign oil?" vs. (1) "Should or should not American use of gasoline be reduced?" If answer is "should" ... (2) "Do you favor or oppose a tax on foreign oil as a way to cut gasoline use?"

        2) Questions should be *short and direct*.

    c. *Valid* = Question measures the concept of interest.

    d. *Response set*: Introduce variety in responses. Don't set it up so that a certain tendency (e.g., conservatism) will always be responded to the same way. "Yes" should be the conservative response sometimes, "no" at other times.

3. *Avoiding Bias*

    a. *Bias* = Questions that make one response more likely than another, regardless of the respondent's opinion.

        1) For example: Surveys which ask for agreement/disagreement:

        "Do you favor murdering babies in the womb?"

        "Do you support the president's position on aid to India?" as opposed to stating the position on India without identifying it with the president.

        2) Consider carefully how a person with limited knowledge will respond to a question.

        3) It should be as easy to say "no" as it is to say "yes."

    b. Avoid questions that are too sophisticated for the respondents.

    c. Questions should be structured and written for the group being surveyed.

B. The Form of Questions and Answers

1. Closed-ended questions

    a. Advantages: Provide a uniform frame of reference for respondents. Easy and inexpensive to work with the data.

    b. Criteria for answers:

        1) Not biased.

        2) All possible opinions are accounted for.

        3) None of the answer categories overlap.

    c. Formats:

        1) Agree/disagree scale

        Can range from a 2 - 7 scale. Scales larger than 3 show degrees of intensity.

2) Other intensity scales:

   Warm -- cold...
   Good -- bad...
   Weak -- strong...
   Fast -- slow...

2. Open-ended questions
   a. Advantages: Allow respondent great freedom in framing answers. Promote the study of HOW the respondents think, not just WHAT.
   b. Disadvantages: Take more time to analyze.
3. Whenever possible *choose open-ended formats* to let respondents define their own frame of reference for the answer. Use closed-ended questions when a quick tabulation of results is required.

C. Constructing the Questionnaire

1. Order
   a. Ask open-ended questions before closed-ended questions on similar topics.
   b. Begin with fairly general questions to put respondent at ease and show that respondent is not being "tested."
   c. Questions should flow from one another, not jump from topic to topic.
   d. Group questions together, possibly with introductory sentence when topics are changed.
   e. Broad questions can be accompanied by follow-up questions. If yes, then... If no, then...
2. Pilot testing -- do it!

Chapter 7, Activity 7

Reporting Evaluation Results

Time Required: 1-2 hours

Purpose:

- ☐ to develop an understanding of the variety of ways that evaluation information may be reported to a variety of audiences.

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Example of a Summary Report

  Example of a More Detailed Report
- ☐ Transparencies:

  What Does It Mean?

  Reporting
- ☐ Overhead projector and screen

Trainer's Notes:

Reports that are individualized to the interests and concerns of specific audiences are likely to be viewed as more useful than a single report attempting to meet the needs of every audience. The substance and format of the reports should be different for different groups. Substance of reports should include thick descriptions of the program and should highlight differences in audience priorities, values, and standards. Reporting should not be looked upon as a single culminating event in an evaluation, but more as an ongoing process in which judgments, recommendations, and lingering questions are decided interactively between evaluator(s) and audience(s).

Before working with this material, we recommend that you read: "Reporting Results Effectively and Making Recommendations," in Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln, *Effective Evaluation: Improving the Usefulness of Evaluation Results Through Responsive and Naturalistic Approaches,* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.

In the presentation and exercise that follow, participants are introduced to the kinds of information to be considered for inclusion in different reports and discuss reporting substance and format designed to meet the needs of at least two different audiences.

Process:

1. *Reporting to Your Audiences.* Present and discuss the content contained in the presentation outline and transparencies.
2. *Developing Reports.* Ask each small group to think about the program they've been working with in previous exercises. Have them identify at least two very different audiences and develop a simulated report or plan for reporting to each group. Focus on meeting specific audience information needs and answering their specific questions. Using the Thinking Skills Reports as handouts, discuss how differently the information might be presented if the audience for the report was the school board.

   (NOTE: If working with a group that has collected their own data from real programs, use their data and assist them to develop reports to be given to actual audiences.)

Reporting to Your Audiences Presentation Outline[10]

I. How do we know what it means?

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *What Does it Mean?*)

A. The evaluation report will be most useful if it answers questions which relate the expectations and standards of the various audiences.

B. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of prespecifying the standards for success and failure.

C. Discuss the importance of involving important audiences in the process of determining meaning.

D. Recommendation: Preplan as much as possible, leaving some design and resource flexibility for emerging questions and/or more fitting criteria.

E. Emphasize throughout discussion the importance of answering the questions of those who care and will most likely make a difference in the program.

II. Reporting

(GO TO TRANSPARENCY: *Reporting*)

A. You will be reporting somewhat different information and in a different format to each stakeholding audience. Your intent is to answer the questions that each really cares about. You will emphasize their interests and go once over lightly on those areas which do not particularly interest them.

B. The form and substance will vary with each audience based upon audience visibility, previous knowledge and experience with the program, and their sophistication.

C. The form will range from a technical, written report to an informal, oral report using visual aids.

D. Use *thick description* in order to provide a vicarious experience whenever you can, including films, tapes, testimonials, artifacts, etc.

E. Include information which is responsive to the concerns and issues of each important audience, such as:

1. Information which assesses causes, consequences, etc. of audience *concerns*.

2. Information which clarifies *issues*, tests the validity of the reasons audiences give for holding certain views.

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[10] See *Continuing to Learn*, p. 170, and Guba and Lincoln, pp. 363-70.

3. Information about *differences in priorities* regarding the concerns and issues of various audiences.
4. Information about *differences in values* held by various audiences.
5. Information which highlights *value conflicts.*
6. Information which highlights the *standards for making judgments* and recommendations. Make clear the source for the standards.

F. Judgments and recommendations should be reached *interactively* between evaluators and audiences.

G. Briefly address the pressures created by human and political factors.

III. Summarize with reminders that:

A. Reporting is a continuous activity.

B. Evaluation is most useful when it increases audience understanding of the program.

CHAPTER 8

Maintenance and Continuity

Overview:

Organizational structure and authorization of a professional development system will assure its existence. It will not, however, assure its vitality or quality. Both conditions are necessary for a professional development system to be maintained over time. An effective system that is more than an artifact requires continued and conscious attention to its members, its content, and its structure. This assumes a culture supportive of professional growth and the leadership to develop it.

The people: Attention needs to be paid to the staff developers. Teachers newly involved in leadership positions in a professional development system are often uninformed, bewildered, and overwhelmed with the scope and content of their new roles. Assistance, support, and training in staff development content and processes are needed. One district established a policy where new members of its district and building teams spent three months shadowing veteran members of the team at their meetings and work sessions before actually replacing them and assuming their responsibilities. This way they eased into the jobs and were provided support and assistance in doing so. Another group requested training in group process and shared decision making for new as well as veteran members of their teams. This was provided at their annual "maintenance retreat."

Veteran participants also need attention. They may become complacent, their enthusiasm dulled. Infusion of new information on a regular basis helps. Information stimulates new thought and practice and can revitalize a program and its members. It also enables and empowers people to make good decisions. As noted earlier, a successful professional development system assumes decision makers who know research and promising practices related to teaching and learning, for adults as well as students.

Knowledge about staff development basics, such as successful practices, alternative options, and managing change, should be revisited regularly. As people become more involved and sophisticated, old information takes on new meanings and understandings are deepened and extended. Common vehicles for the infusion and rethinking of new or old information are focused discussion groups, conferences, and maintenance retreats.

Decision makers should also be aware of available resources they might tap, such as conferences, validated staff development programs, or networks. This means that people who regularly receive such information, usually administrators, must be sure to pass it on to other members of the professional development teams so they can be informed.

Finally, attention to people means continued attention to how they work together. Groups that have worked together for a while often become a bit too comfortable and sloppy in their way of operating. Revisiting group process skills can greatly enhance their effectiveness (see Chapter 5).

The content: Maintaining a professional development system also requires continued attention to the quality of the specific activities that it supports. Teachers and administrators become excited and committed to successful programs that help them do their jobs better. If the programs don't effect change, their interest and enthusiasm wanes. Time and resources are too limited to waste on programs that don't make a difference. Sometimes, when a staff development activity doesn't work, the content is at fault. More often, however, it is the way in which it is conducted. Good planning, matching a given activity with local needs, and careful modeling of successful practices dramatically increase the number of quality professional development programs. Periodic reexamination of successful practices for program planners helps assure their use.

As noted in Chapter 6, consideration of the concerns of participants and their use of new practices learned through staff development programs is also critical to successful continuation. Different concerns (i.e., about managing the practice versus collaborating with others to improve it) suggest different intervention and management strategies. If the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) has not yet been introduced to the staff, now is the time to do it. (See Chapter 6, Activity 5) A revisit may also be useful. It can be applied at the system as well as the program level.

The structure: Continual evaluation of staff development programming helps to ensure its quality. Because it is so important, it is presented at length in the previous chapter. But the basic structure of a professional development system also needs to be examined regularly and modified as necessary. Even mature systems should be reassessed periodically. The context, members, and needs of schools change over time and may suggest a different structure. Often the change called for is from a simple to a more differentiated structure, particularly as people learn more about effective practices and alternative approaches.

Sometimes the reverse is true. A staff development program in one district, for example, had evolved into a sophisticated, highly differentiated, informal system with unarticulated norms. As long as the same members remained, it worked. Over a three-year period, however, the central office administrators left the district and 80% of the members of the building teams changed. At the annual spring maintenance meeting, a veteran staff developer realized that she was in the minority. The previously developed vision of teacher-driven staff development was no longer common, nor even recognized by all. The old structure and mission didn't fit the new players. They needed to go back to basics, to build a shared vision and new norms, possibly different ones. They needed to go back through a thoughtful process of reexamining their beliefs and goals regarding professional development and rebuilding appropriate structures to help them act on these beliefs.

One of the best vehicles we've seen for both a reexamination of a staff development system and a deepening of knowledge is a maintenance retreat. Such an event is usually held in the spring in comfortable surrounding away from school. It provides an opportunity for evaluating past activities, planning new ones, and learning in the process. The retreat format also contributes greatly to collegiality.

Leadership: Leadership is critical to successful continuation of a staff development system. A support system will not get started without it. The best training will not stick if classroom and school environment work against mastering a new practice or refining an old one. And professional environments will not be maintained without continual leadership and support.

Staff need to know that professional growth is valued, expected, and supported. Policy makers and school leaders need to keep its mission clear and visible. This means continued talk about staff development, its importance, and how it is affecting staff and students. Such conversations need to occur with staff, members of the board, and community.

Simple words of encouragement can also help, especially through the inevitable floundering that accompanies trying something new. The participation of principals or other administrators as learners in some of the staff development activities is another particularly powerful way to convey a belief in the importance of continued learning for everyone.

Leadership also means continued communication about what is happening in the system. Communication is somewhat like time. There is never enough of it. Multiple ways of informing and inviting discussion and participation must be employed over and over again. Common information-sharing strategies are presentations/discussions at faculty meetings, written updates, and newsletters. One district staff development team attached updates to paychecks. Members of another high school support team were responsible for personally sharing information with and gathering information from eight designated staff members. They found this personalized approach was most effective.

Words and presence are not enough, however. Released time for planning and access to consultants and training are needed for most professional growth strategies to flourish. Without these concrete statements of support, a staff development system is unlikely to go very far. Organizing schedules to facilitate teachers' work with one another is a particularly useful means of support. Time to work together is repeatedly identified by teachers as the single most valuable component of good support programs. School leaders can be heroes if they can make this happen.

School leaders also assure continued visibility and quality of staff development through annual and public review of its mission, structure, and the programs within it. To be effective, the system must be responsive to changing needs, players, and the context of the school community.

Finally, maintenance of a professional environment requires recognition and reward for successful activities and growth. Individuals and schools should be applauded for good works. Leaders make sure this happens.

What follows is a potpourri of activities which have been particularly effective with experienced staff developers. It includes tools and strategies to check on the people, the content, and the structure of a staff development system; to deepen and extend knowledge; and to plan for continued growth.

Goal for This Chapter:

- to present a potpourri of activities to support the maintenance and continuity of a staff development system

Outline of Activities:

Activity 1: Building Strong Cultures (60-90 minutes)

Activity 2: Revisiting Good Practices in Staff Development (4 hours)

Activity 3: Conversations about Staff Development (1-2 hours)

Activity 4: Assessing Staff Development (2 1/2 - 3 1/2 hours)

Activity 5: Problem-Solving Capsule (2 hours)

Activity 6: Checking Program Implementation (1-3 hours)

Activity 7: Maintenance Retreat (2-3 days)

Chapter 8, Activity 1

Building Strong Cultures

Time Required: 60-90 minutes

Purpose:

- ☐ to examine school climate and its relationship to staff development

Materials:

- ☐ Reading:

  Jon Saphier and Matthew King. "Good Seeds Grow in Strong Cultures," *Educational Leadership,* March 1985.

Trainer's Notes:

Good staff development can, in fact, drive the continued development of many of the norms identified by Saphier and King in their article. For example, structures supporting collegiality are developed and nurtured; the internal and external knowledge bases are continuously examined and applied. But staff development is unlikely to get to the point of being really good without the existence of the norms described by Saphier and King. The status of staff development usually reflects the status of the school culture or climate. In far too many schools, staff development is nonexistent, rudimentary, or inconsequential at best. In most of these places, moral is low, communication nonexistent, and decisions are made only at the lofty top. Staff feel unrecognized and unrewarded. The support and resources necessary for the challenge of continued learning are simply not available. Strong staff development requires strong and healthy cultures.

This simple activity highlights the importance of a healthy culture and its relationship to staff development. It also operationalizes the often fuzzy term "school climate."

Process:

1. Ask participants to read "Good Seeds Grow in Strong Cultures" by Jon Saphier and Matthew King.
2. Form small groups to examine each of the 12 cultural norms presented in the article. Ask each group to examine one to three norms, depending on the number of small groups.
3. In small groups ask participants to:
   - ☐ Discuss:

    - ❑ comparison of 12 norms with attributes of successful staff development (refer to *Continuing to Learn* and Chapter 2, Activity 6)
    - ❑ examples of existence of the norms in their schools
    - ❑ implications for staff development action
- ❑ Rate the extent to which the norms they are examining exist in their schools (None = 1 . . . 2 . . . 3 . . . 4 . . . 5 = Very Evident).
- ❑ Identify the single most important action to promote the development of a healthy climate.

4. Groups report out.

Chapter 8, Activity 2

Revisiting Good Practices in Staff Development

Time Required: 4 hours

Purpose:

- to renew, deepen, and extend knowledge of staff development

Materials:

- Handout:

  Inventory: Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Systems (from Chapter 2, Activity 6)

- Readings:

  Beverly Showers, Bruce Joyce, and Barrie Bennett. "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development: A Framework for Future Study and a State-of-the-Art Analysis," *Educational Leadership*, November 1987.

  Selected articles from three strands (see reference list)

  - adult development and change
  - organizational development and school improvement
  - alternative options for staff development

  "Building a Foundation for Professional Development: A Case Study," Chapter 5 of *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*.

Trainer's Notes:

There is no end to information being generated about staff development. The breadth and the depth of the knowledge base is expanding continuously. No matter how much you know, you can learn more. This series of activities provides an opportunity for staff developers to think about new information on staff development or rethink old. Beverly Showers and her associates' synthesis presents a recent and rigorous review of research on staff development. The articles used in the jigsaw activity were purposely selected to present a broader gestalt of what staff development entails. And the case study is a wonderful vehicle for applying this knowledge creatively, playing around with ideas, and creating a vision of successful practice. Because it isn't real (to readers), there are no "yeah buts" to get in the way. The application of information and analysis of practice which the activity demands can lead to wonderful "ah hahs" and deepening understanding of what successful staff development can look like. This knowledge is then more likely to be applied in the real world.

Sometimes it is difficult to break even experienced staff developers from the wearisome habit of simply planning isolated inservice days. It is an entrenched habit which doesn't change quickly. This sequence helps to loosen the entrenchment.

Process:

1. Refresher: Summary of Research (1 hour)
   - ☐ Ask participants to read "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development."
   - ☐ Form quartets. Within quartets form pairs, one to examine field-based issues, the other research-defined issues.
   - ☐ Within pairs, using the article as a basis for discussion, ask participants to discuss:
     - ☐ the most significant points
     - ☐ experience or other knowledge that supports or refutes the research or field-based literature presented
     - ☐ lingering questions . . .
     - ☐ implications for staff development in their school(s)
   - ☐ Report and discuss within quartets.
2. Jigsaw – The Gestalt of Staff Development (2 hours)
   - ☐ Form groups of six. Within each group split into two triads. Each triad will be a Home Group. (See Chapter 2, Activity 3 for more detailed instructions.)
   - ☐ Present and review materials, choosing at least two articles in each of three strands:
     - ☐ change and adult development
     - ☐ organizational development and school improvement
     - ☐ alternative strategies for professional development
   - ☐ Within triads participants determine who is responsible for each strand.
   - ☐ Within each group of six, pair the "experts" for each strand. Ask participants to collect the two articles on their strands. If more than two are available, they should decide which two they both will read. It's important that they read the same ones.
   - ☐ Participants read the selected articles.
   - ☐ Within "expert" pairs, they discuss:
     - ☐ the most significant points (those that really "grabbed" them)
     - ☐ implications for action

Participants create a one-page summary or visual to use during their presentation to their Home Groups.

- ☐ Participants return to Home Groups and
  - ☐ teach each other about each strand of information
  - ☐ identify the three most significant implications of this gestalt of information
  - ☐ create a portrait of "The Gestalt of Staff Development" to be presented in some fashion to the larger group.
- ☐ Home Groups present portraits to the larger group.

3. An Open-Ended Case Study of Staff Development: Jefferson School District (1 hour)
   - ☐ Ask participants to read the case study, Chapter 5 of *Continuing to Learn*.
   - ☐ Form four groups, one to work on the high school plan, two on the elementary schools, and one on the district plan. (If the groups are larger than six, split each into two.)
   - ☐ Assign group tasks:
     - ☐ Develop a scenario describing what could happen in the school (or district) described. Consider the reality of the district with which they are dealing as well as what they know about successful staff development. Keep in mind knowledge about adult development, change, organizational development, and alternative options.
     - ☐ Rate their scenario, using Inventory: Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Systems from Chapter 2, Activity 6. Identify specific examples from their projected scenario as well as the stage leading to it – to support their rating.
   - ☐ Groups report out and compare plans. Discuss implications for next steps.

Suggested Readings

Tesfatsion Dalellew and Yvonne Martinez. "Andragogy and Development: A Search for the Meaning of Staff Development," *Journal of Staff Development*, Summer 1988, Vol. 9, No. 3.

Judy-Arin Krupp. "How to Spark an Aging Staff: Some Suggestions," *Illinois School Research and Development*, Fall 1983, Vol. 20, No. 1, pages 38-45.

Susan Loucks-Horsley. "Managing Change: An Integral Part of Staff Development." In S. Caldwell (Ed.) *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, 1989.

Susan Loucks-Horsley and Associates. "Alternative Approaches to Staff Development." Chapter 4 in *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and the National Staff Development Council, 1987.

Milbrey McLaughlin and David Marsh. "Staff Development and School Change." In Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller (Eds.) *Staff Development: New Demands, New Realities, New Perspectives*. Teachers College Press, 1979.

Sharon Oja. "Adult Development is Implicit in Staff Development." *Journal of Staff Development*. October 1980, Vol. 1, No. 2, pages 7-56.

A.E. Roark and W.E. Davis Jr. "Staff Development and Organization Development," *ASCD 1981 Yearbook*, pages 37-57.

Georgea Sparks and Joanne Simmons. "Inquiry-Oriented Staff Development: Using Research as a Source of Tools, Not Rules." In S. Caldwell (Ed.) *Staff Development: A Handbook of Effective Practices*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council, 1989.

M.A. Sullivan. "Staff Development Through Professional Reading and Discussion." *Journal of Staff Development*, Spring 1987, Vol. 8, No. 1, pages 39-41.

Chapter 8, Activity 3

Conversations About Staff Development

Time Required: 1-2 hours

Purpose:

- ☐ to introduce participants to study groups as a vehicle for continued professional growth, and to a process to implement them.
- ☐ to deepen knowledge about current or relevant educational issues or research and facilitate reflection about practice.

Materials:

- ☐ Readings:

  Selected articles on topics determined by conversation groups

Trainer's Notes:

Discussion groups are among the most effective ways to infuse new information about staff development and to deepen thought. They provide an opportunity for more in-depth examination of both external and experiential knowledge and a structure to dig into some of the recurring issues plaguing staff development and educational improvement. Specific research findings or the writings of practitioners may focus the conversations, or they may be driven by a particular issue. The possibilities are endless. For example, John Goodlad's Study of Schooling is loaded with implications for staff development and school improvement; teacher leadership is increasingly becoming a hot topic and one that merits deep examination by staff developers. A look at the results of studies of school improvement (such as those, listed later, by Crandall and Associates and Berman and McLaughlin) would be another interesting and useful topic for conversation. Another resource we've found to be particularly valuable is Ann Lieberman's *Rethinking School Improvement*. It is filled with thought-provoking articles that dig more deeply into school improvement and will cause readers to do precisely what the title says, rethink school improvement. Also interesting are individual chapters in Lieberman's *Developing Professional Cultures in Schools*.

Conversations about staff development can become a regularly scheduled event for all members of a staff development team, perhaps as a part of monthly meetings, or may be conducted by smaller groups of interested staff. They should become a tradition.

Process:

(What follows are procedures for two different types of conversation groups.)

1. Topical Conversations (Adapted from Allan A. Glatthorn's "Cooperative Professional Development: Peer-Centered Options for Teacher Growth," *Educational Leadership*, November 1987.)

    ☐ Form small groups of three to six.

    ☐ Group members meet to determine:

      ☐ basic questions about the structure of the dialogues: frequency, time, and place of meetings

      ☐ a tentative agenda of topics for the first three months and a leader for each discussion

    ☐ The topics should be:

      ☐ educationally important to participants

      ☐ ones about which informed people seem to differ

      ☐ ones for which some background material is available

    ☐ Each session follows a three stage format:

    Stage 1: emphasizes external knowledge

      ☐ The group leader summarizes views of experts and evidence from research.

      ☐ Members then analyze that external knowledge: To what extent do the experts agree? What are the issues that divide them? To what extent is the research evidence in conflict?

    Stage 2: centers on personal knowledge

      ☐ What have we learned about this matter through personal experience?

      ☐ In what ways does our experiential knowledge support or question the external knowledge?

    Stage 3: looks to the future

      ☐ What are the implications of this discussion for our work as staff developers?

2. Conversations About Articles

    ☐ Form small groups of three to six.

    ☐ Determine when and where to meet for the first three meetings and identify the discussion leader for each. Discuss possible articles for discussion.

    ☐ Each discussion leader selects one or two articles and distributes them to members two weeks in advance.

    ☐ Each session follows the following format:

- ☐ The group leader briefly summarizes the articles.
- ☐ Group members then examine and discuss:
    - ☐ What they consider the most significant points and why.
    - ☐ How their experience supports or refutes the knowledge presented.
    - ☐ The implications of this information for their work as staff developers.

Chapter 8, Activity 4

Assessing Staff Development

Time Required: 2 1/2 - 3 1/2 hours

Purpose:

- to suggest a "quick" way to examine and evaluate a staff development system
- to develop specific plans for continuation and improvement

Materials:

- Handouts:

  Guidelines for Collaborative Work

  Inventory: Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Systems (See Chapter 2, Activity 6)

  Diagnosing Staff Development (See Chapter 1)
- Newsprint and markers

TRAINER'S NOTES:

This series of activities is designed for an end of the year evaluation and planning session. The updating is particularly useful at a districtwide meeting for staff development groups or leaders from all buildings or constituencies. It is revealing, may be humorous and also is fun. Participants can learn a lot about what has been happening across the district or with other groups as well as others' perceptions of ups and downs. This introductory activity sets the stage for a more serious examination and diagnosis of the health of a staff development system, leading to a plan for continued growth. A quick review of the Implementation Checklist (see Activity 6 in this chapter) may also be useful and suggest some improvement actions.

Process:

1. Group Update
   - Form small groups by building or role, i.e., central administration, parent, teacher, etc.
   - Each group discusses, identifies and charts:
     - The Year's Staff Development Highlight(s)
     - The Year's Lowlights (major problems)

    - The Most Humorous Happening(s)
    - Questions of Others . . .
        - Groups report out responses and field questions.
        - Reserve problems until Diagnosing Staff Development (See #4).

2. Guidelines for Collaborative Work -- An Assessment
    - Participants remain in groups. Ask them to read Guidelines for Collaborative Work.
    - Ask participants to assess their progression as a collaborative group related to each guideline. Identify and discuss examples for each.
    - Ask each group to rate themselves on the extent of their collaboration (1 low to 5 high) and mark on chart.
    - Ask them to discuss several strategies for improvement or growth.
    - Groups report out.
3. Revisiting Critical Attributes
    - Ask participants to individually complete Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Systems (from Chapter 2, Activity 6).
    - Form small groups of three or four. Ask participants to share responses. They then identify the three attributes which have had the most improvement as well as those still most in need of improvement, and discuss implications for next steps.
    - Report out group responses and rationale for choices.
4. Diagnosing the Staff Development System
    - Ask participants to read and individually complete Diagnosing Staff Development (from Chapter 1).
    - Form pairs to share their responses and rationale for choices. Where perceptions differ, ask participants to give specific examples to support their choices.

      Ask pairs to identify all areas in high need of improvement and prioritize the top three. Have them identify the three greatest strengths of their staff development efforts and chart their responses.
    - Report out. Collapse responses and group by the categories of climate, management, assessment, program design, and evaluation.
    - Form task forces to more deeply examine, evaluate, and plan for action regarding each of the major components of staff development.

Tasks for each task force:

  - Identify a group historian and documenter, a group task master, and a spokesperson.
  - Quickly compare ratings for each item within the category.
  - Cite specific evidence supporting responses.
  - Identify those items needing improvement. (Refer also to priority problems identified earlier by the whole group.) Discuss probable causes. Identify possible solutions.
  - Develop a specific action plan for improvement (what, when, where, who, etc.)

- Task forces report out:
  - A brief summary of their discussion (three minutes maximum)
  - The highlights of the year (relative to their category)
  - The lowlights
  - Recommendations to reinforce the positives and improve the negatives.

  Discuss and modify as appropriate.

- As a group, agree on a specific plan for next steps.

Chapter 8, Activity 5

Problem-Solving Capsule

Time Required: 2 hours

Purpose:

- to identify solutions to implementation problems

Materials:

- Handout:
  Problem Solving Capsule

Trainer's Notes:

Though we hesitate to call anything a sure winner, this activity surely is. It presents a structured opportunity to talk about problems in a staff development system, to be heard, to be given suggestions, and do the same for others – and has never failed. A wealth of ideas and practical solutions can be generated. Simply talking something out leads to deeper insights in itself. This activity is particularly suited for a sharing session of staff development teams from different buildings or districts. The cross fertilization of ideas is enormously beneficial, leading to enhanced collegiality as well as diverse solutions. It can also be used, however, with small groups within a team who are responsible for working on particular issues. For example, the procedures presented here could be used by the task forces formed in the Diagnosing Staff Development activity (Activity 4) to generate strategies for solving high priority implementation problems.

The capsule can be used at any time, whether it is late fall with its startup problems, February when the winter doldrums hit, or for the spring yearly review and planning for the next year.

Process:

1. Setting the Stage
   - Explain that the purpose of this activity is to identify solutions to implementation problems they're experiencing.
   - Ask each team (building or district) to identify major implementation problems facing their staff development efforts. (Diagnosing Staff Development is an excellent tool to help do this.)
   - Have them assign each team member a problem to examine and work on.

2. Form heterogeneous triads (persons from different buildings, districts, or roles).
3. Distribute the Problem-Solving Capsule directions. Briefly review the process. Explain that each person has one cycle as a "helpee" and two as a "helper".
4. Conduct the activity. Monitor the time carefully to assure the third "helpee" doesn't get shortchanged.
5. Return to building or district teams. Ask participants to share ideas generated and the list of next steps. Discuss and agree on those to be carried out.

Chapter 8, Activity 6

Checking Program Implementation

Time Required: 1-3 hours

Purpose:

☐ to check the status of program implementation

Materials:

☐ Handout:

Implementation Checklist

☐ Reading:

Susan F. Loucks and Marge Melle. "Evaluation of Staff Development: How Do You Know If It Took?" *Journal of Staff Development*, April 1982, Vol. 3, No. 1, pages 102-117.

☐ Information from Chapter 6, Activity 5 on the Concerns-Based Adoption Model

Trainer's Notes:

As staff development programs get underway, continued attention must be paid to the concerns of participants as they engage in change as well as their use of the new practices. This is another time where the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) can provide a useful framework and tool for diagnosis which can, in turn, suggest the most appropriate intervention and management strategies.

The implementation checklist can also serve as a useful diagnostic tool relative to the management of programs being implemented within a staff development system.

Process:

1. Revisiting the Concerns-Based Adoption Model

   ☐ Refer to Chapter 6, Activity 5. Follow activities as appropriate.

   ☐ Read "Evaluation of Staff Development: How Do You Know If It Took?" Discuss the impact of participants' staff development programs, as well as the extent to which their staff development system itself has been implemented.

2. Implementation Checklist

   - ☐ Ask participants to individually read and complete the Implementation Checklist.
   - ☐ Form triads. Participants share and discuss responses, citing evidence to support their views. They identify five items most in need of attention.
   - ☐ Groups report out.
   - ☐ Form small task forces to work on each need. Task forces identify probable causes and a plan for improvement.
   - ☐ Task forces share recommendations. As a group, participants agree on a specific plan for next steps.

Chapter 8, Activity 7

Maintenance Retreat

Time Required: 2-3 days

Purpose:

To design and conduct a maintenance retreat to:

- ☐ renew, deepen, and extend knowledge of staff development
- ☐ refine group process skills and enhance collegiality
- ☐ examine and evaluate the staff development system
- ☐ develop specific plans for continuation and improvement
- ☐ have fun

Materials:

- ☐ Handouts:

  Sample agenda

  Excerpts from a Staff Development Award Banquet

Trainer's Notes:

As stated in the overview, a maintenance retreat is a wonderful occasion for expanding knowledge, evaluation, planning, and team building. It provides an opportunity for looking backward and forward, for revisiting old information, finding new meaning in it and digging into new information. It is productive, stimulating and fun, and can do more in two days for collegiality and good planning than three months of after-school meetings. It should become an annual tradition for staff developers.

The primary purposes of a retreat vary, but generally include: to evaluate past activities, to plan for continuation or new development, to deepen knowledge of staff development, and to have fun. And fun is, we believe, a legitimate objective for staff developers. Learning *is* fun. Good people and surroundings, stimulating information, and involving, relevant activities lead to this naturally. Work and play, seriousness and humor – all are a part of this occasion and can contribute greatly to the cohesiveness and effectiveness of the group.

A retreat really should be a retreat, held away from the school environment in comfortable and attractive surroundings. Lakeside lodges or country inns are common favorites. People within or outside the school system can facilitate retreats. Outsiders can provide a different and objective perspective and new information, and can allow insiders to fully participate. Involvement by insiders builds commitment and ownership. A combination is often preferable, although with experienced staff developers, use of outside consultants is not necessary. Regardless, the staff development team should be the planners of the event.

And finally, The Awards Ceremony. It serves as a light-hearted way to recognize and reward the highlights and lowlights of the year, different team personalities, and the strengths and idiosyncrasies of individual staff. We've found there are always creative visionaries and humorists within groups, and the development of the awards becomes as enjoyable as receiving them.

Process:

We know of no tricks to design a maintenance retreat. It simply requires good planning. Rather than attempting to guide participants through the development of a retreat, we are simply including an agenda from a retreat planned and held by a district staff development team.

1. Review agenda and excerpts from the awards banquet.
2. Ask participants to discuss:
   - ☐ Which parts match your needs? Which don't?
   - ☐ Which parts do you like? Which do you not?
   - ☐ What modifications might you make?
3. Ask participants to design a retreat suited to their staff development groups.

Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide

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Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide

Handouts, Transparencies, and Readings

How to use this package

This package contains three sets of masters for *Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide*. The first set contains all the handouts; the second, the overhead transparencies; and the third, the readings. Within each set items appear in the order in which they are called for in the trainer's instructions, which are packaged separately. The few masters that serve as both handouts and transparencies are included with the handouts for a particular activity.

We recommend that you first copy each set of masters, then set the masters aside in separate folders so that you will always have clean copy to reproduce for your training needs. You'll note that all masters except multi-page handouts are one sided. (We have provided the masters unpunched for those trainers who object to the marks left by punched holes.)

The set that you copy you'll want to punch and insert into the *Building Systems* binder. You may find it helpful to copy each type of master onto a different color (e.g., all handouts on yellow, all transparencies on green, all readings on blue) so that they are easy to locate.

You'll note that both handouts and transparencies are numbered for easy insertion into the trainer's text. Because the readings do not fit the page format of *Building Systems*, we opted not to number the readings. You may wish to insert them within each activity or as a group at the end of each chapter, whichever you find more useful.

We understand that setting up the notebook will take a few minutes and that reading these instructions/recommendations is like reading the directions to a new board game -- they will only make sense once you start to do it. We know you'll find the initial effort well worth it once you become familiar with the system and begin to use these materials.

We've done our best to provide a complete set of training materials in a flexible format to meet your training style and needs. Once you've used *Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide*, please take a few moments to complete and return the enclosed evaluation card. We are always interested in feedback about our products and services. Janet Angelis, Communications Coordinator, or Susan Mead, Staff Associate for Teacher Development, will be happy to answer questions or respond to suggestions. They can be reached at the number and address below.

Thank you.

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Diagnosing Staff Development

Climate/Readiness	Yes	No	Needs Improvement	Don't Know
1. School staff exchange ideas, plan, and work together.	____	____	____	____
2. Testing and trying out new ideas and plans is encouraged.	____	____	____	____
3. Administrators and parents have trust and confidence in school staff.	____	____	____	____
4. Leadership and support for staff development is provided by principals and central office.	____	____	____	____
5. Schools are familiar with research which may provide useful information relative to both the content and process of staff development and other school improvement activities (i.e., research on effective schooling, effective instruction, school change, and staff development).	____	____	____	____
6. Good teaching is appreciated and recognized.	____	____	____	____
7. School staff care about each other.	____	____	____	____
8. School staff are involved in decision making.	____	____	____	____
9. Honest, open communication exists at all levels (teacher-teacher, teacher-administrator, administrator-administrator).	____	____	____	____

Management	Yes	No	Needs Improvement	Don't Know
1. The purpose of staff development and underlying beliefs are articulated and acted on.	____	____	____	____

Developed by M. Arbuckle, Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services, 1988.

Management (continued)	**Yes**	**No**	**Needs Improvement**	**Don't Know**
2. A defined structure to manage staff development efforts exists in the school and/or district.	____	____	____	____
3. Responsible groups and their functions are clearly defined.	____	____	____	____
4. Teachers, administrators, and significant school community members are actively involved as planners as well as participants of improvement activities.	____	____	____	____
5. Operating procedures for responsible groups are clearly defined.	____	____	____	____
6. The responsible groups are knowledgeable about successful staff development practices and approaches.	____	____	____	____
7. A plan for the continued education of the responsible group is developed and carried out.	____	____	____	____
8. Staff development is formally and visibly authorized and supported.	____	____	____	____
9. Ongoing training in team building is provided for the responsible groups.	____	____	____	____

Assessment and Goal Setting	**Yes**	**No**	**Needs Improvement**	**Don't Know**
1. Persons responsible for assessment are knowledgeable about a variety of assessment techniques.	____	____	____	____
2. Assessment is a conscious and public activity.	____	____	____	____
3. Assessment data are gathered from a variety of sources using a variety of techniques.	____	____	____	____
4. School and district strengths as well as needs are identified.	____	____	____	____
5. Improvement goals are linked directly to assessment data.	____	____	____	____

Assessment and Goal Setting (continued)	Yes	No	Needs Improvement	Don't Know
6. Needs assessment results are visibly linked with program delivery.	____	____	____	____

Designs for Learning	Yes	No	Needs Improvement	Don't Know
1. Activities or programs are developed to meet improvement goals.	____	____	____	____
2. A variety of professional growth options exist, for individuals as well as groups with similar needs.	____	____	____	____
3. Professional development opportunities outside of inservice days are provided.	____	____	____	____
4. School staff are familiar with available local, state, and national resources and utilize such resources in their improvement strategies.	____	____	____	____
5. Sufficient time and funds are allocated for improvement activities.	____	____	____	____
6. Incentives for participation in staff development activities emphasize intrinsic rewards.	____	____	____	____
7. Inconvenient times and locations are avoided.	____	____	____	____
8. Staff acceptance and commitment is created by involving teachers in decision making and providing logistical and psychological administrative support.	____	____	____	____
9. Instructional practices that are carefully developed and determined to be effective are utilized.	____	____	____	____
10. A critical mass of participants is involved.	____	____	____	____
11. Program objectives and the roles of administrators and teachers are clear.	____	____	____	____
12. Research and rationale for new techniques is presented and critical discussion encouraged.	____	____	____	____

Designs for Learning (continued)	**Yes**	**No**	**Needs Improvement**	**Don't Know**
13. Staff development activities are spaced over time. Single sessions are generally avoided.	____	____	____	____
14. Program activities include demonstrations, practice, feedback, and coaching.	____	____	____	____
15. Opportunities for small group discussion regarding application of new practices and sharing of ideas and concerns are provided during training sessions.	____	____	____	____
16. Training is conducted by credible people.	____	____	____	____
17. Between sessions teachers are encouraged to visit each others' classrooms and provide peer coaching.	____	____	____	____
18. Regular meetings or opportunities for discussion of practical problems related to the programs occur frequently.	____	____	____	____
19. Assistance and support is provided by a variety of players.	____	____	____	____

Maintanence	**Yes**	**No**	**Needs Improvement**	**Don't Know**
1. Strategies to maintain momentum are consciously designed and carried out.	____	____	____	____

Evaluation	**Yes**	**No**	**Needs Improvement**	**Don't Know**
1. The impact of staff development activities on staff as well as students is assessed.	____	____	____	____
2. Evaluation of programs serve to assist in planning and implementing future programs.	____	____	____	____
3. The entire staff development system is evaluated regularly and redesigned as appropriate.	____	____	____	____

Case Study One

Mountain View Elementary School

The newly hired assistant principal of Mountain View School, a large urban elementary school, was a champion of staff development. She had been very involved in staff development as a teacher leader in her previous position. She knew what had worked and what hadn't and was eager to act on her knowledge. She had also recently completed a challenging masters degree program and arrived on the job filled with ideas, enthusiasm, and knowledge about recent research on education and on staff development. The principal of the school was less informed but shared a deep belief in the importance of continued professional development of all staff.

At this point staff development at Mountain View consisted of an occasional districtwide activity mandated by the central office. The staff were uninvolved in staff development, knew little about what it could be, and didn't care. They were also involved in a contract dispute. Nonetheless, the champions pushed onward.

To help the staff learn more about staff development possibilities, they gave everyone readings on effective schooling research, along with three-inch binders. They hoped for stimulating and meaningful discussions with the staff. Instead the teachers resented the readings, didn't know the purpose of the information, and were intimidated by the size of the notebooks. Being sensitive to the concerns of the teachers, the administrators decided to hold an open forum to air concerns. It resulted in a gripe session about things over which the administrators had no control. They had, with the best of intentions, created a white elephant.

The administrators knew a lot about successful staff development, but had absolutely no idea how to make it happen. They sought assistance from the director of the statewide staff development network. Through discussion with her and reading of information on the *processes* of staff development -- as opposed to the *content* -- they began to formulate a plan to remedy the situation they had created. Their first step was to educate the staff about staff development (*not* effective schools). With low morale, a tight teacher contract, no money, and only one inservice day left in the year, doing this was going to be a challenge. They decided to use half of the allocated inservice day for a series of mandated activities that got the staff reading, thinking, and talking about staff development. The design infused new information from recent research and built on the teachers' experiences with staff development. It acknowledged the legitimacy of their experiential knowledge as well as knowledge from external sources.

The assistant principal felt strongly about the importance of involving the entire staff in this initial educating phase and was willing to risk the repercussions of a mandated day. She wanted the staff to determine how to proceed with staff development, but also wanted them to have a more enlightened vision of what it might look like before giving them that responsibility. The half-day inservice was conducted by an elementary teacher from a neighboring district who was a skilled and experienced staff developer. She was credible, could relate to the teachers' concerns, and was well suited to handle a potentially volatile situation. The administrators participated fully as learners. The outcome was overwhelmingly positive. The session closed with a request for volunteers to serve on a design team to actually create a staff development system for their school. Twenty-one teachers volunteered..

A brief after-school meeting was conducted by the teacher consultant to review for the design team and interested others the basic elements of a structure for staff development and steps to develop one. Seventeen teachers attended. Eleven of them then developed a proposal for funds from the district staff development team to support a summer work retreat to develop their system. When this proposal was presented for approval, eleven other teachers attended to signal their support.

The proposal was approved and a summer session scheduled. By now, the numbers were up to 24. The incentive for involvement was certainly not money; only $25 per day per teacher had been requested. Their primary motivation was simply to influence the design of staff development opportunities in their school. They were on their way.

Case Study Two

West Orange School District

The West Orange School District was considered one of the best in the state. Its proximity to the coast, easy access to several large cities, and rural location made it a very desirable spot indeed. The school staff was stable, experienced, knowledgeable, and very professional.

The district had developed a five-year staff development plan, as required by the state. The plan, which consumed many pages, clearly outlined the organizational structure for staff development, defined a mission statement, described districtwide goals and action plans to meet them, and presented a timeline. It was a tidy package. The group with primary responsibility for staff development was a district professional development team composed of "professional development leaders" from each building, the central office, and parent association.

Something was lacking, however. The plan didn't touch the heart of staff development, nor the staff. It was a hollow document that had meaning only to the few who had written it. Although the district team had been formed, their role was unclear. Most of the activities were districtwide, most of the proposed activities were still sitting on paper, the needs assessment was outdated, and isolated, fragmented workshops continued to be the major vehicle for staff development.

The assistant superintendent, formerly a principal and teacher in the district, recognized that it was a plan on paper only. It didn't come close to matching his vision of what staff development should be. He believed in the importance of an integrated, coordinated, districtwide system, but recognized and valued the diversity of the schools. He also believed firmly in teacher involvement as decision makers. He was an ardent champion of staff development and a voracious searcher of knowledge (an "omnivore," as Bruce Joyce would say), for himself as well as the staff. He knew that good decisions would not be made if the staff were not educated about staff development.

Shortly after the district team was formed, the assistant superintendent held a two-day retreat with a nationally known consultant to familiarize team members with effective staff development practices. This was the start on an ongoing process of continuing education. Information about how to create a framework to nurture and support these good practices, however, was still lacking. He and the team knew what they wanted, but didn't know how to get there.

To further his own education, the assistant superintendent attended the National Staff Development Council conference and read *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*. He sought out one of the authors, who met with him and the cochairs of the district professional development team. The purpose was to examine the current state of affairs and to lay out a plan for what needed to happen. The outcome was a plan jointly developed and strongly endorsed by all parties. It was a good fit.

A three-day summer retreat was then planned to revisit successful staff development practices, develop a "living" mission statement, and develop a management plan which reflected knowledge of effective practices. The intent was not only to rebuild a more meaningful organizational structure for staff development in West Orange, but also for the school leaders to experience a process for developing a system which they could, in turn, apply in their own buildings. This was accomplished very successfully. A follow-up day was devoted more specifically to the application of the district system at the building level and the development of individual building-based staff development systems. They were well on their way to implementing an integrated building-based system for professional development.

Attributes of Successful Teacher Development Programs

1. Collegiality and collaboration
2. Experimentation and risk taking
3. Use of available knowledge bases
4. Participant involvement in appropriate aspects
5. Time to participate and practice
6. Leadership and sustained support
7. Appropriate incentives and rewards
8. Application of knowledge about adult learning and change
9. Integration of individual, school, and district goals
10. Integration of staff development within the philosophy and structure of the organization

Inventory: Characteristics of Successful Staff Development Systems

PART I

Please rate the following attributes relative to your district or school by circling a number indicating your response.

	⇐nonexistent/clearly evident⇒				
1. Collegiality and Collaboration	1	2	3	4	5
2. Experimentation and Risk Taking	1	2	3	4	5
3. Incorporation of Available Knowledge Bases	1	2	3	4	5
4. Appropriate Participant Involvement	1	2	3	4	5
5. Time to Work on Staff Development and Assimilate New Learnings	1	2	3	4	5
6. Leadership and Sustained Administrative Support	1	2	3	4	5
7. Appropriate Incentives and Rewards	1	2	3	4	5
8. Designs Built on Principles of Adult Learning and Change	1	2	3	4	5
9. Integration of Individual, School and District Goals	1	2	3	4	5
10. Integration of Staff Development into the Philosophy and Structure of School and District	1	2	3	4	5

PART II

1. Identify the three attributes that you feel are the *most* important to work on right now.

2. What are some implications for action planning?

3. What implications are there for your school and district?

From: *Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development*. The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and the National Staff Development Council, 1987.

Key Elements of a Staff Development Structure

1. Mission statement and guiding beliefs

2. Management plan

   - responsible groups: their composition and functions

   - operating procedures: selection and replacement of team members, decision making, running meetings

   - timeline

   - continuing education

3. Formal authorization

Background Reading:
Mission Statements and Guiding Beliefs

A *mission statement* about professional development is a key element of a management plan. It is the vision of where professional development is headed and provides direction and a basis for decision making. It is brief (one phrase) -- almost like a slogan -- and capable of common interpretation by all members of the school community. An example is, "Success through communication," the slogan of a statewide teacher support network in Maine. A Vermont school district's staff development mission is, "Working together to provide growth opportunities for all."

Accompanying belief statements further define the mission and describe the beliefs that are most important to implementing the mission. The beliefs serve as specific guides to action. In one example of belief statements, a high school listed several assumptions about professional growth, including:

- ☐ Professional development is a process, not an event, for both teacher and principal.
- ☐ Diversity of ideas and practices -- as learners and teachers -- contribute to the strength of our school.
- ☐ Learning takes time and requires personal support as well as challenge.

A metaphor by Longfellow exemplifies the philosophy in another district: "As turning the logs will make a dull fire burn, so changes of study a dull brain . . ."

Many staff development groups don't have defined mission statements and guiding beliefs. We believe, however, that it is an important part of the professional growth structure for several reasons. A tangible mission statement, with accompanying guiding beliefs, gives meaning and direction to staff development and provides a focus for what is done, as well as what is not done. Its existence highlights the importance of continued professional development of staff. A brief, slogan-like mission statement is easy to grab on to, and a participatory process of development builds ownership and meaning. It also helps to operationalize the reams of literature on staff development. Reading and discussion will not mean much unless we ask: What does this mean for us, and how can we apply it? Articulated shared beliefs and a mission statement help assure that such information will be acted on.

The guiding beliefs should reflect the beliefs, priorities, and language of the school or district, but should also be founded on effective known practices. Thus, we suggest spending a fair amount of time reading, thinking, and talking about staff development, or "educating the decision makers" before the mission statement is developed. Its development and the articulation of guiding beliefs follow easily and logically after such activity.

To be a meaningful and "living" mission statement, it should be thoughtfully developed by teachers, administrators, and significant others through a participatory process that results in broad endorsement. The more the better, since its meaning comes from being involved in its formulation. A mission can be developed by a group of six or sixty. It can be developed by a central design group and/or by building groups.

Having developed a mission and guiding beliefs, it is very important to think and talk about how to use it and how to involve and inform others in and about it. Otherwise, it will become an artifact that may look nice for show but has little use or meaning.

Background Reading:
Management Plan

A structure for professional development with formal authority, a mission statement, and diverse improvement offerings can still be unresponsive and irrelevant if it is not collaborative in nature. This is best accomplished through the establishment of collaborative groups within the school and district that are representative of the staff and have real decision-making prerogatives. A *management plan* in which the roles and composition of these groups are clearly designated is really the core of a structure for a professional development program. Thoughtful delineation of the roles of different groups within the system helps to reduce confusion and conflict, avoid duplication of effort, and ensure equitable and appropriate distribution of tasks and rewards. The heightened awareness of who is responsible for what also greatly improves coordination of activities.

Creative visioning of both the who and what of staff development should be encouraged. Often groups get locked into a narrow and restricted vision of what professional development can or should be. The image of a district team focused only on planning inservice days is not only uninspiring but limited in effectiveness. Explore a variety of functions and the use of a variety of responsible groups.

The most commonly used decision-making groups in professional development systems are district and building staff development teams. However, in small districts or districts composed of many scattered small schools, a unified team for the elementary grades, for example, is often more appropriate. Examples of other groups that may be formed to play specific roles in a professional development system are support teams for new teachers, action research teams, or principal assistance teams.

Existing groups can also play important roles and make significant contributions. Involvement of the school board and administration is obviously critical to the success of the system. Curriculum task forces or parent groups may assume particular roles. These roles should be clearly delineated in the management plan.

Groups may be ongoing, such as a district professional development team, ad hoc, such as a teacher research team, or one formed for a specific task, such as needs assessment. Often groups are abolished when their work is done and reconstituted only when the need for that task re-emerges. As Roland Barth wryly noted in *Run School Run* (1980), "Standing committees generally engage in a lot of standing around!" Interest in serving on committees is rarely a problem if there is a specific need for the committee, and it has a defined beginning and end. Use of ad hoc committees for specific tasks is a particularly good way to provide many opportunities for involvement by staff in things that interest them.

What roles the groups should play may be determined by the school or district's needs and interests, or they may be mandated by local, state, or federal government. Commonly identified responsibilities include assessment and goal setting, identification of available resources, program design, and evaluation. Less common yet equally important tasks include upgrading the knowledge of responsible parties, establishing links with outside staff development resources, informing building staff of new legislation regarding teacher certification, and disseminating to staff recent research on effective teaching. Tasks may be general, such as "maintain and support the interest and enthusiasm of responsible parties," or quite specific, such as "prepare a district policy on staff development" or "assist individual teachers in resolving special classroom behavioral problems."

Frequently, a given responsibility may be divided up with several different groups involved in different ways. For example, the school board, a district leadership team, and building-based professional growth teams may all play important roles in the tasks of assessment and goal setting. The board is responsible for determining the general focus of the assessment; the district team is responsible for identifying a common assessment method comparing results from all schools; and the building teams are responsible for using and analyzing the data collected, as well as gathering additional information to help them formulate high priority building goals. Such differentiation is clearly articulated in a written staff development management plan.

Rules for group operations and membership are also defined in the management plan. Attention to how a group works is particularly helpful with very diverse groups or groups that are not used to working together. A simple checklist for running good meetings can be an invaluable tool for disruptive groups or for those unaccustomed to working together. Modified Robert's Rules of Order and the checklist can bring order to a chaotic situation.

Attrition is a commonly cited reason for the dissolution of many staff development groups. Defined replacement procedures increase the likelihood of continuity.

A plan for continued education of the responsible groups is a final, important component of a management plan. Additional information, assistance, or training may be needed for the groups to carry out their roles most effectively. A plan for such assistance increases the likelihood that it will occur and that high quality decision making and planning will take place.

The basic structure of a teacher development system is usually simple in the beginning. Waiting to create the perfect system at the start means it will probably never get off the paper. The important thing is to establish some basic parameters, such as the centrality of the school (as opposed to the district), and *do* something. Refinement of the support system can come after practice.

Background Reading:
Formal Authorization and Support

Formal authorization of professional development at the district and building level is an essential element of an effective system. If it doesn't exist, little more than tinkering can occur. Serious efforts at staff development will not get started without some degree of authorization and support, and a support system will certainly not be implemented without it.

School board policies that address the purposes and value of professional development, as well as the resources directed to it, assure its continuation over time. A written mission statement and management plan are tangible products which can be authorized by the school board and administrative leadership. If the selection process for the team that designed the structure was effective, jurisdiction and support should not be a problem. The group will consist of people respected in the school community, with authority, influence, and credibility.

Staff development systems are formally embedded in the school organization through other means as well, such as clauses about professional growth expectations in teacher contracts, an approved budget, and allocation of time. If professional development is embedded in the organization of the school or district, the support structure and ensuing climate of professional stimulation and growth endures, even though the focus of participants changes over time.

The importance of staff development and the newly designed support structure must be clearly demonstrated by people with power and influence. Staff need to hear that professional growth is valued, expected, and supported. Official school leaders such as superintendents and principals do this in a variety of ways. At the initiation of a staff development program, there is lots of formal and informal talk about professional development, its importance, the intent and nature of a good program, and how it might affect the lives of the staff as well as students in classrooms and schools. In one suburban school district, for example, the superintendent presented an overview of a proposed professional support system developed by the district's staff development team in the summer. He spoke quietly but eloquently about the importance of learning for everyone. This was followed by discussions at faculty meetings in each school building, led by the building principal and teacher members of the staff development team. Lots of thinking and discussion about professional growth were stimulated. It was a good start.

Words and presence are not enough, however. Provision of released time for planning, access to consultants, and training are needed for most professional growth strategies to be carried out. Without these concrete demonstrations of support, a staff development system is unlikely to go very far. Organizing schedules to facilitate teachers' work with one another is a particularly useful and critical means of support. Time to work together is repeatedly identified by teachers as the single most valuable component of good support programs. School leaders can be heroes if they can make this happen.

Designing a Staff Development Structure
How Do You Do It?

1. Form a collaborative design team.
2. Educate the team about how to develop a structure to support staff development and about successful staff development practices.
3. Develop a mission statement and a set of guiding beliefs.
4. Develop a management plan.
    - ☐ Identify supporting and restraining forces.
    - ☐ Define responsible groups.
    - ☐ Develop operating procedures: selection and replacement of team members, decision making, running meetings.
    - ☐ Determine an action plan and timeline for designated tasks.
    - ☐ Identify information, assistance, or training needed to carry out tasks, and develop a plan to acquire it.
5. Secure formal authorization and support.
6. Do it . . . operationalize the system.
7. Attend to maintenance and continuity.

Building a Mission Statement for Staff Development

> *Consider any great organization -- one that has lasted over the years -- I think you will find that it owes its resiliency not to its form of organization or administrative skills, but to the power of what we call beliefs and the appeal these beliefs have for its people. This then is my thesis: I firmly believe that any organization, in order to survive and achieve success, must have a sound set of beliefs on which it premises all its policies and actions. Next, I believe that the most important single factor in corporate success is faithful adherence to those beliefs. And, finally, I believe if an organization is to meet the challenge of a changing world, it must be prepared to change everything about itself except those beliefs as it moves through corporate life. In other words, the basic philosophy, spirit, and drive of an organization have far more to do with its relative achievements than do technological or economic resources, organization structure, innovation, and timing. All these things weigh heavily in success. But they are, I think, transcended by how strongly the people in the organization believe in its basic precepts and how faithfully they carry them out.*
>
> *From Tom Peters and Robert Waterman,*
> *In Search of Excellence*

A *mission statement* is almost like a slogan. It provides cohesiveness, direction, and a basis for daily decision making. It is ongoing. It is never attained but provides a vision of where one is headed and gives the thrust to all one does.

Criteria for a Mission Statement

- ☐ Describes your audience or clients (who it's for).
- ☐ Describes your action, activities, processes (what you do).
- ☐ Describes your aim (toward what end).
- ☐ Is brief (one to two precise and clear statements regarding what you are about).
- ☐ Establishes what "business" you are in.
- ☐ Is capable (with discussion) of common interpretation by all: staff, students, parents, community.
- ☐ Provides criteria for making choices. Is used as arguments for your goals. "If we do this, we will be furthering our mission."
- ☐ Is achievement-oriented. Provides a rallying point for everyone. It says, "This is what we are trying to accomplish."

- May use words or phrases that require further definition.

Value statements further define the mission statement. They state the belief system of the organization. They allow you to clarify some things that you were not able to include in the *brief* mission statement. These statements give the mission its power. They clarify and elaborate the meaning and intention underlying the words and phrases which have been carefully chosen for the mission statement.

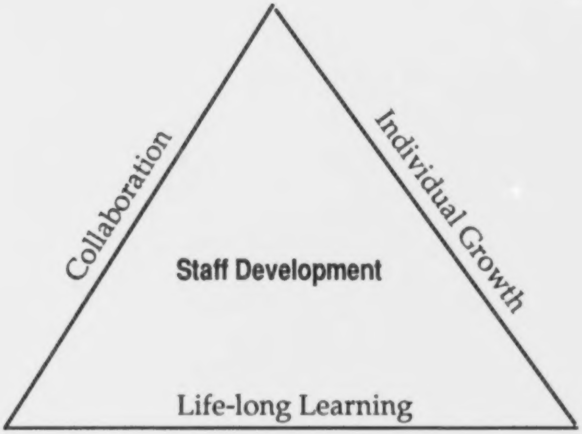
Criteria for Value Statements

- Are congruent with the mission.
- Describe beliefs that are important to implementing the mission.
- Are small in number (three - five).
- Are supported by staff consensus.
- Guide people's behavior.
- Define what the organization is about.

People visiting a mission-oriented school will hear talk of that school's mission and values daily as plans, decisions, and evaluations are made.

A Sample Staff Development Mission Statement

MISSION: Working together to provide growth opportunities for all


Collaboration
Individual Growth
Staff Development
Life-long Learning

LIFE-LONG LEARNING -- Nurtures, develops, and empowers a community of life-long learners.

INDIVIDUAL GROWTH -- Promotes professional and personal growth and self-actualization for all.

COLLABORATION -- A planned, participatory process for individual and organizational change.

From: South Burlington Public Schools, South Burlington, VT.

Principles for Brainstorming: The Production of Alternatives

Brainstorming is a simple procedure for generating a lot of information relative to a given question.

The basic steps are:

1. Pose the focusing question.
2. Review procedures and principles for brainstorming.
3. Respond (keeping in mind the rules). Chart all responses.
4. Review ideas.

Principles for Brainstorming

1. You will produce more ideas if you refrain from evaluating them or discussing them at the time they are proposed. This is important because education and experience have trained most of us to think judiciously rather than creatively. By deferring judgment on our ideas, we can think up far more alternatives from which later to choose.
2. Group production of ideas can be more productive than separate, individual production of ideas. Experiments in group thinking have demonstrated that the average participant in this kind of creative collaboration can think up twice as many possible solutions as when working alone.
3. The more ideas we think up the better. In problem solving of almost any type we are far more likely to choose the right path toward solution if we think up ten ideas by way of possible alternatives instead of only two or three.

First phase: BRAINSTORM responses according to the following rules:

- ☐ All critical judgement is ruled out. We seek ideas, not critical analysis.
- ☐ Wild ideas are expected in the spontaneity which comes when we suspend judgment. Practical considerations are not of importance at this point.
- ☐ Quantity of ideas counts here, not quality.
- ☐ Build on the ideas of other brainstormers when possible. Pool your wildness.

Second phase: NO CRITICAL JUDGMENT IS applied:

- ☐ Members should review the ideas by applying their best judgment.
- ☐ Members should be urged to seek for clues to something sound in the wildest idea.
- ☐ Priorities should be selected for reporting to the decision-making person or group.

A Guide for Developing a Structure for Staff Development

District or School: Blueville School District

Supporting Forces	Restraining Forces
(for staff development and school improvement activities in the schools/districts)	
1. Strong administrative support 2. National reports and public awareness of need for change 3. Committed core groups of teachers and administrators 4. Small number of staff (open communication more possible)	1. Small number of staff (to perform tasks) 2. Very critical, vocal and influential high school department heads 3. Limited time 4. Limited dollars

Possible Tasks/Functions

1. Plan district inservice days
2. Plan building inservice days
3. Identify available resources (people, materials, programs) to resolve problems/meet needs
4. Determine standards for recertification and approve/disapprove individual requests for recertification credit
5. Supervise and support new teachers
6. Identify priority district needs/problems and improvement objectives
7. Identify priority building problems/needs and improvement objectives
8. Identify individual staff needs and improvement objectives
9. Determine general focus for needs assessment (e.g., school, instruction)
10. Plan and manage improvement activities and resolve problems/needs
11. Coordinate district staff development activities

Incentives

1. Release time for activities
2. Real authority for meaningful decision-making responsibility
3. Recertification

Possible Responsible Groups*

1. District Improvement Team *
2. Building Teams
3. Administrative Team *
4. Research Team
5. Curriculum Teams
6. School Board *
7. Parent Support Groups *
8. Teacher Assistance Teams
9. Support Groups for New Teachers

* Star those that presently exist

Selection Criteria **

1. Reasonable time demands
2. Focus on building as critical unit for improvement

** Match Criteria with possible tasks and star those selected

Proposed Responsible Groups and Composition	**Functions** (Match selected tasks with groups)
1. School Board (in conjunction with Administrative Team)	1. Provide budgetary support for staff development and school improvement activities 2. Determine general focus for needs assessment
2. District Improvement Team (central office person, director of special education, director of vocational education, board member, representatives from building teams, secondary principal and elementary principal)	1. Develop in school board, central office administrators, and parent group an awareness of the importance of staff development 2. Prepare district policy for staff development 3. Involve and inform school board, central office administrators, and parent groups of improvement activities 4. Establish links with outside staff development resources (e.g., university professional development centers, state association for staff development, teachers' center) 5. Identify priority district needs (conduct a comprehensive assessment every two years) 6. Plan and manage improvement activities to resolve priority district needs 7. Manage district staff development budget 8. Assist schools in planning school-site improvement 9. Keep buildings informed of new legislation related to staff development 10. Evaluate the staff development system at district level
3. Building Improvement Teams (department heads and/or teachers representing grade level or discipline, and parents)	1. Involve and inform principal and generate enthusiasm for staff development activities 2. Involve and inform building staff of improvement activities 3. Involve and inform community members of improvement activities 4. Coordinate building improvement activities 5. Identify priority building problems/needs 6. Apply relevant research related to school and staff improvement 7. Plan and manage improvement activities to meet building needs 8. Plan use of inservice days 9. Manage school staff development budget 10. Evaluate building improvement activities
4. Ad hoc Research into Practice Teams (each composed of two to four teachers and one unversity staff)	1. Identify particular focus for study 2. Apply research to classroom practice 3. Write up results and disseminate to school staff
5. Teacher Assistance Teams (composed of three teachers, including one special educator)	1. Assist individual teachers in resolving special classroom behavioral problems
6. Support Groups (composed of three area teachers trained in classroom observation and clinical supervision)	1. Supervise and support new teachers 2. Develop improvement plan 3. Evaluate progress

A Guide for Developing a Structure for Staff Development

District or School: ______________________________

<table>
<tr><th>Supporting Forces</th><th>Restraining Forces</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">(for staff development and school improvement activities in the schools/districts)</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Possible Tasks/Functions</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Incentives</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Possible Responsible Groups*
* Star those that presently exist</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Selection Criteria **
** Match Criteria with possible tasks and star those selected</td></tr>
</table>

Proposed Responsible Groups and Composition	**Functions** (Match selected tasks with groups)

Task Force Guidelines:
Composition

Tasks:

1. Define:
   - ☐ the composition of the responsible groups
   - ☐ the method of selection
   - ☐ the length of term
   - ☐ procedures for replacement
   - ☐ rewards or incentives for involvement

2. Carefully consider *who* should decide the above. (the design team? the responsible group? significant others?)

Task Force Guidelines:
Operating Procedures

Tasks:

1. Define:
    - ☐ When will the responsible groups meet? for how long?
    - ☐ How will decisions be made?
    - ☐ Who will chair the groups?
    - ☐ How will meetings be run?
    - ☐ How and when will group effectiveness be checked?

Resources:

- ☐ See Chapter 4, Activity 5: Assessing Team Effectiveness
- ☐ See Chapter 4, Activity 4: Conducting Better Meetings

Task Force Guidelines:
Continuing Education

Tasks:

1. Refer to the designated tasks for the responsible groups.

2. Determine what information, assistance, or training would help the groups carry out the tasks most effectively (the *content* of continued education).

3. Determine strategies to most effectively educate the responsible groups (the *processes* of continued education).

4. Determine who might provide such information or assistance, and when it should occur.

5. Develop a continuing education action plan.

Resources:

- ☐ *Continuing to Learn*, Chapter 5, "Alternative Approaches"
- ☐ Chapters in this guide on program design, assessment, evaluation

Task Force Guidelines:
Group Responsibilities and Timeline

Tasks:

1. Review designated responsibilities of the responsible groups.
2. Determine when they should take place. Are they ongoing, or is there a preferable time of the year or month or day for each to be conducted?
3. Draw up a timeline for staff development functions.

Task Force Guidelines:
Budget

Tasks:

1. Determine who (person or groups) determines budget allocation for staff development at the district level; at the building level.

2. Define procedures for determining budget allocations at the district level; building level.

Task Force Guidelines:
Communication

Tasks:

1. What relationship will the proposed responsible groups have with all other existing groups?

2. What communication will exist with the school board? Administration? Teachers? Parents? Others?

3. How will interaction/communication between the responsible groups be assured?

4. How can the rest of the staff be involved in and informed about the work of the design committee?

Task Force Guidelines:
Mission and Guiding Beliefs

Tasks:

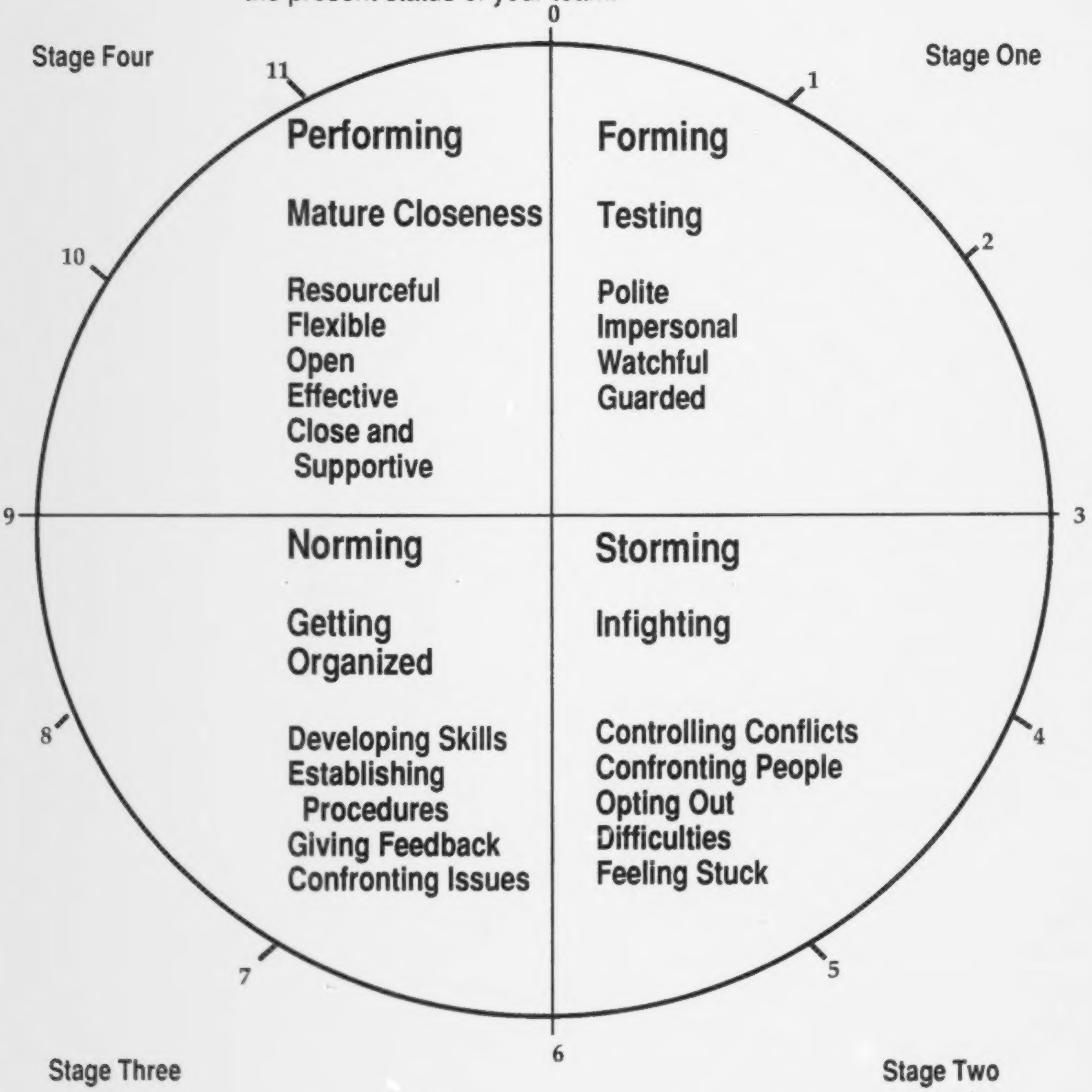
1. Define the mission of staff development in the school(s).

2. Identify the three to five most important beliefs to guide implementation of the mission.

3. How will this information be used or put into operation?

Team Development Wheel

Instructions: Place a mark on the circumference of the wheel to represent the present status of your team.


0
Stage Four
Stage One
11
1
Performing
Forming
Mature Closeness
Testing
10
2
Resourceful
Flexible
Open
Effective
Close and
Supportive
Polite
Impersonal
Watchful
Guarded
9
3
Norming
Storming
Getting
Organized
Infighting
8
4
Developing Skills
Establishing
Procedures
Giving Feedback
Confronting Issues
Controlling Conflicts
Confronting People
Opting Out
Difficulties
Feeling Stuck
7
5
6
Stage Three
Stage Two

Stages of Team Development

Groups of people working together do not become a team in a day. Teams evolve and become productive over time. Regardless of their size or composition, teams go through certain stages of development. The length of each stage varies from team to team and may be as short as one meeting or may last for several months. The sequence of stages is the same for each, and while the specifics of each stage may vary from team to team, the overall nature of each stage is consistent across teams. During this process, some of the activities and feelings of team members may not appear to be productive. This is particularly true during the dissatisfaction stage when a sense of frustration and incompetence frequently emerges. However, working through each stage is a crucial part of the team's evolution if the end result is to be a fully functioning team.

1. Orientation Stage ⇒ Forming

- Members are somewhat eager and have positive expectations.
- Members are concerned about and want to know:
  - What is the purpose of the team?
  - What will they have to do?
  - Who will lead?
  - Will their efforts be fruitful?
- Members are dependent on the situation and whoever is leading.
- Energy and time are focused on:
  - Defining the goal(s) and the task of their team.
  - Devising at least an initial means for carrying out tasks, i.e., team process and procedures.
  - Determining what skills are needed for their team, which of those skills members lack and need to develop, and how those skills might be learned.
  - Once determined, trying out and becoming accustomed to team process and procedures.

2. Dissatisfaction Stage ⇒ Storming

- Members become somewhat frustrated.
  - Expectations and reality of team work do not coincide.
  - Dependence on the leader becomes unsatisfying.

- Appropriate resources are not readily available.
- Some problems presented to team are not easily solved.

- Members may feel some anger towards the leader, the goals and tasks of the team, and other members.
- Members may feel sad, discouraged.
    - They feel they cannot do what they hoped.
    - They feel incompetent.
- Energy and time are focused on:
    - Redefining what their task is in "achievable" terms.
    - Determining strategies for solving long-term problems.
    - Determining how best to accomplish their task, including assessing any additional skills needed.
    - Resolving their sense of frustration and incompetence.
    - Redefining their expectations so that they are more compatible with what is possible.

3. Resolution Stage ⇒ Norming

- Frustration is dissipating.
    - Expectations and reality are more closely, if not completely, meshed.
    - Skill in carrying out procedures and, therefore, in completing tasks is increased either by additional experiences with the process or specific training activities.
- Personal satisfaction is increasing.
    - Process and procedures are being mastered.
    - Self-esteem is heightened.
    - Pleasure in accomplishing task and getting positive feedback from staff through informal or formal monitoring processes outweigh earlier frustrations.
- Collaborative efforts are beginning to jell.

4. Production Stage ⇒ Performing

- ☐ Members are once again eager to be part of the team effort.
- ☐ Individuals on the team feel greater autonomy.
- ☐ Members are working well together.
    - ☐ Leadership functions are shared.
    - ☐ Sense of mutuality (we sink or swim together) and interdependence has developed.
- ☐ Energy and time are focused on achieving the team's purpose: meeting staff needs through strong staff development activities.

5. Termination

- ☐ Members may feel:
    - ☐ Sense of sadness because the team is, at least for the time being, ending.
    - ☐ Strong sense of accomplishment.
    - ☐ Last minute urgency to tie up loose ends.
    - ☐ Regret, if they feel they were not able to do everything planned.
- ☐ Energy focused on:
    - ☐ An evaluation of what has been accomplished, quantity and quality.
    - ☐ What needs to be done to complete the task for the time being.
    - ☐ If appropriate, how to begin the task anew the following school year and what changes, if any, should be made based on the previous year's experience.

Major Messages:

1. *Teams evolve through several stages of development.*
2. *A stage may last for one hour or one year, and there is no way to know ahead of time how long a particular stage will last.*
3. *Dissatisfaction is a natural part of the team process and should not be viewed as a sign that the team is failing, but rather that it is time for the members to take stock and review goals, processes, resources, rewards, and outcomes.*

Principles for Effective Teamwork

Although there are no recipes for being an effective team, there are some basic principles that can help team members work together efficiently and productively. Use these principles as guidelines for your team efforts. Feel free to adapt them, add to them, delete some, modify some, or make up new ones to suit your team and situation.

- ☐ *Responsibility for the team is shared by all team members.* Identify with the team and its goals -- if the team fails, it's both your fault and the team's fault.
- ☐ *Decisions should always be agreed to by the team.* They are not made by the leaders, any individual, or any clique -- all important policies should be decided by the team. The team should have a voice in its own goals and the techniques that should be used to accomplish them.
- ☐ *Use methods which allow as many as possible of the team members to participate.* Let the team work frequently in subgroups. Bring out minority and individual opinions by asking frequent questions of team members.
- ☐ *Be flexible.* Be flexible in rules, agenda, and in all procedures. Establish a plan for your activities, but always modify it when you find that you need to. Tasks and how they are done should change as the skills, needs, and interests of the team change.
- ☐ *Cut down the threat to individual members.* Get team members acquainted with each other. Use informal procedures, minimize rules, separate the members of cliques or friendship circles, discuss the problem of status, use subgroupings to get members accustomed to working as a team.
- ☐ *The team should continually evaluate its progress.* This may be done by evaluation sheets, process reports, subgroup discussions, suggestion boxes, etc. The important point is that it should be done often, briefly, and well.
- ☐ *Team members should be conscious of the importance of the roles that they play.* Study the different roles that people can play, analyze the roles they play, consciously play roles that are helpful to team progress.
- ☐ *Let the team be active.* Let team members try a variety of tasks, encourage a risk-free atmosphere where no one fails, consciously provide for the skill development and appropriate participation of all members.

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Sabotaging the Team

Blocking:

Being negative and stubbornly resistant
Disagreeing and opposing without or beyond "reason"
Attempting to maintain or bring back an issue, direction, or task after it has been rejected or bypassed

Attacking:

Deflating the status of others
Expressing disapproval of the values, acts, or feelings of others
Attacking the team, the leader or the problem being worked on
Joking aggressively
Trying to take credit for another's contribution

Being Playful:

Displaying lack of involvement in the team's efforts by cynicism, nonchalance, horseplay

Seeking Recognition:

Boasting, reporting on personal achievements
Acting in unusual ways
Struggling to prevent being placed in an "inferior" position

Deserting:

Withdrawing in some way
Being indifferent, silent, aloof, excessively formal, day dreaming
Deliberately doing tasks that are unrelated to team's functions and goals (i.e., grading papers, knitting)

Pleading Special Interests:

Speaking for the "grass roots" and the "community," the "poor children," etc.
Cloaking one's own prejudices and biases in the stereotype which best fits selfish, individual needs

Dominating:

Asserting power or superiority to manipulate the team or certain members of the team by flattery
Asserting a superior status or right to attention
Giving directions autocratically
Interrupting the contributions of others

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Group Task Behaviors and Roles

Initiating:

Helping the team get started by proposing tasks or goals
Defining a problem
Suggesting a procedure or idea for solving a problem

Information/Opinion Seeking:

Requesting facts, asking for clarification of statements that have been made
Trying to help the team find out what people think or feel about what is being done
Seeking suggestions or ideas

Information/Opinion Giving:

Offering facts or additional useful information
Expressing thoughts or feelings
Giving suggestions or ideas

Clarifying/Elaborating:

Interpreting or reflecting ideas and suggestions
Clearing up points of confusion
Offering examples to help the team imagine how a strategy or proposal might work
Distinguishing alternatives to issues before the group

Summarizing:

Pulling together related ideas or tasks
Restating suggestions after a group has discussed them
Organizing activities so that the group will know what it has accomplished

Setting Objectives:

Expressing objectives for the group to achieve
Applying standards in evaluation
Measuring accomplishments against goals

Testing Workability:

Applying suggestions to real situations to gauge the practicality and workability of strategies

Checking:

Sending up "trial balloons" to see if the team is nearing completion of a task
Checking to see how much more needs to be done

Gatekeeping:

Attempting to keep communication channels open
Making it possible for others to make their contributions
Suggesting procedures for more productive use of resources

Harmonizing:

Attempting to reconcile disagreements
Trying to provide common-ground compromises for opposing points of view so the team can continue to work
Getting people to explore their similarities, as well as their differences

Relieving Tensions:

Draining off negative feelings by jesting or soothing troubled people
Putting tense situations in a wider context

Encouraging:

Being friendly, warm, responsive to others and their contributions
Helping others to contribute
Listening with interest and concern
Reinforcing others' participation

Diagnosing:

Determining sources of difficulty
Seeking appropriate next steps

Adapted with permission from: *Guidelines for Effective Teamwork*, Research for Better Schools, Inc., Philadelphia, PA, 1984.

Who Does What in Our Group?

Below is a list and a brief description of different roles and functions that people play in groups. First, assess your own behavior by indicating how often you perform each role (1 = rarely, 5 = all the time). Then choose the one person in the group who best fits each role description and write their name next to the role.

At the same time, assess your own behavior in relation to the role description. Use a scale from 1 ("I rarely or never perform this function") to 5 ("I perform this function a great deal or most of the time").

Group Task Roles	*Me*	*Others*
1. *Initiator/Contributor:* Proposes goals, ideas, solutions, defines problems; suggests procedures.		
2. *Information and Opinion Seeker:* Asks for clarification and suggestions; looks for facts and feelings; solicits ideas and values of other members.		
3. *Information Giver:* Offers facts and relevant information or experience.		
4. *Opinion Giver:* States beliefs about alternatives; focuses on values rather than facts.		
5. *Clarifier/Elaborator:* Interprets; gives examples; defines terms; clears up confusion or ambiguity.		
6. *Coordinator/Summarizer:* Pulls ideas, opinions, and suggestions together; summarizes and restates; may try to draw members' activities together; offers conclusions.		
7. *Gatekeeper/Expediter:* Keeps communications open to all members; opens up opportunities for other to participate.		
8. *Harmonizer:* Tries to reduce conflict and tension; attempts to reconcile differences.		
9. *Encourager:* Supportive of others; praises efforts and ideas; accepts contributions.		
10. *Evaluator:* Helps group assess whether it has consensus or is reaching a conclusion.		

Consensus

Consensus Decision Making:

- Is a process used to ensure that every individual has input into a decision.
- Requires everyone's participation. Listening, sharing, trust, and respect are values inherent in the process.

The Consensus Contract:

Consensus is based on the term "to consent" as in "to grant permission." To arrive at consensus is to give permission to go along with the total group (the majority). The implication of consensus is that an individual can negotiate the terms by which he or she will grant his or her permission. Each individual has the right and obligation to make his or her terms known.

Contract Assumptions	**Commitments/Procedures**
All people are choosing beings.	I will explain my perception of the problem/issue.
All persons are free to disagree and voice an opinion.	I will discuss my feelings.
Freedom means he/she engages in action by choice.	I will explain my needs/goals concerning the issue.
Compromise is not necessary.	I will let others know how important this issue is to me.
There is no right answer.	I will listen to others' opinions.
	I will respect others' needs for space, privacy, and identify.
	I will negotiate.
	I will grant permission to the majority, with a minority report.
	I will implement the decision.

Advantages of a Consensus:

Unlike a majority vote, a consensus requires a full commitment from all the group members to the decision. Because everyone is involved in the decision and must indicate agreement, the outcome is likely to be accepted by most.

(If there is a vote, members in the minority are often not given an opportunity to propose changes, and if they vote NO, they are in effect relieved of any responsibility for the outcome.)

Consensus may take a bit more time in a group, but the outcome is usually more likel to be implemented and supported. It's worth the effort.

Consensus Means . . .	Consensus Does NOT Mean. . .
All group members contribute.	A unanimous vote.
Everyone's opinions are heard and encouraged.	The result is everyone's first choice.
Differences are viewed as helpful.	Everyone agrees (there may be only enough support for the decision to be carried out).
Everyone can paraphrase the issue.	Conflict or resistance will be overcome immediately.
Everyone has a chance to express feelings about the issue.	
Those who disagree indicate a willingness to experiment for a certain period of time.	
All members share the final decision.	
All members agree to take responsibility for implementing the final decision.	

The Pyramidal Process for Reaching Consensus

This process is most useful when a group needs to come up with one "answer." It has been used most effectively with developing mission and/or philosophy statements for some specific activity.

1. Thoroughly introduce and discuss the task at hand. For example, if the group is working on a mission statement for the staff development team, the characteristics of a well written mission should be discussed and agreed to. Everyone needs to have a good grasp of what the final product will look like.
2. Group members are first asked to write their own individual version.
3. After each member has written his/her own draft, pairs are formed. Their task is to reach a consensual agreement on one statement which satisfies them both.

   Note: At this stage it is often necessary to review the "rules" of reaching consensus.
4. Each pair is then joined by another pair, and the consensus-building process begins again.
5. The size of the consensus-building groups continues to grow until one product/statement is arrived at with which every member of the group can agree.

Notes:

This process is seldom completed in a day. Often it is possible to arrive at two or three versions in the first session. It is useful for people to have some time to think about the various versions before trying to reach a consensus on the one and only. Often three or four sessions are necessary to complete the task.

If the group appears to be stalemated -- unable to agree on one version or another -- the discussion and negotiation process can be speeded up by using a "fish bowl." The opposing groups each select one or two spokespersons for their point of view. The spokespersons come to the front of the room and continue negotiations in front of the rest of the group; thus, a "fish bowl" is formed. An empty chair or two should be provided for the observers to temporarily join the "fish bowl" group whenever they want to make a particular point or put forth a particular argument.

The Nominal Group Process

The nominal group process is a method for structuring groups to allow individual judgments to be pooled and used when there is uncertainty or disagreement about the nature of the problem and possible solutions. The process is helpful in identifying problems, exploring solutions, and establishing priorities. It works best with groups of five to nine participants. Larger groups can be handled by making minor changes in procedure, particularly Step 2, but any group larger than 12 should be sub-divided.

Nominal Group Process Procedures

Step 1: Silent generation of ideas in writing.

Read the focus question aloud and ask participants to list their responses in phrases or brief sentences. Request that they work silently and independently. Allow four to eight minutes.

Step 2: Round-robin recording of ideas.

Go around the table and get one idea from each participant. Write the ideas on newsprint. As each sheet is finished, tape it on the wall so that the entire list is visible. Number each item. Leave space to the left of each number to record votes at a later time. Encourage hitchhiking on other ideas. Discourage discussion, elaboration, or justification.

Step 3: Serial discussion of the list of ideas.

Clarification: Explain that the purpose of this step is clarification. Read item 1 aloud and invite clarifying comments. Then read item 2 and continue discussing each item in turn until the list is covered. Arguments are unnecessary because each participant will have a chance to vote independently in Step 4. As soon as the logic and meaning of the item are clear, cut off discussion.

Categorization: Once each item has been discussed, duplicate items should be identified and combined. This may necessitate rewriting some of the items before the voting step. However, resist the temptation to combine *many* items into broader categories. Some participants may seek to achieve consensus by this means and the precision of the original items may be lost, or the combined item will become so abstract and all-inclusive that the group in effect is able to avoid the difficult choices inherent in prioritizing.

Step 4: Voting.

Each participant selects five items that are most important to him or her, writes them down, and rank orders them (1 = *least* important; 5 = *most* important). Record the priority numbers on newsprint in front of the group. The numbers are then added, resulting in a total for each item. Items can then be prioritized – those items with the highest numbers are considered the highest priority. The group then discusses the voting patterns. If desired, the items can be further clarified and a second vote taken.

Adapted with permission from: Moore, Carl M., *Group Techniques for Idea Building*. Sage Publications, Beverly Hills CA, 1987.

The Multi-Voting Technique*

This method of voting on items helps a group to reduce the number of items to be selected in a way that tends to eliminate individuals' close identification with items.

Example: A group of 10 people can use this technique to vote on 12 items thus:

1. Each person may vote as many times as he/she wants, but only once for each item.
2. The top vote-getters -- those items that receive six or more votes -- are then voted on, the number of votes per person this time being restricted to two or three.
3. The top vote-getters from the second voting (again, items receiving six or more votes) are now voted on, and this time each person gets just one vote.

   Note: After each round of voting, ask participants to discuss why they voted for the top vote-getters before going to the next round of voting.

Here is how the example looks. (We suggest recording votes on the actual brainstorming list.)

Item	1st vote	2nd vote	3rd vote
A	7	5	
B	3		
C	8	7	3
D	2		
E	4		
F	6	9	6
G	7	2	
H	5		
I	6	1	
J	5		
K	8	6	1
L	2		

Before voting:

- ☐ Be sure that all items have been thoroughly discussed and clarified.
- ☐ Be sure that all duplicate items have been combined (while guarding against too much categorization, lest you reach too high a level of abstraction).

After voting:

- ☐ After each round of voting, ask participants to discuss why they voted for the top vote-getters before going to the next round of voting.

Example:

The above example is only that -- an example. The number of votes that the group is allowed within any voting session and/or the cut-off for top vote-getters can be modified depending upon the pattern which emerges. What is important is that participants narrow their choices as quickly as is comfortable and that discussion between voting sessions provides a forum for ongoing evaluation and consideration of fewer and fewer options.

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Guidelines for Leadership in Small Groups

1. *Keep opening remarks brief.* It is necessary to see that all members are acquainted; however, the introduction of members and the topic for discussion should be kept brief. State the objectives of the session, outline what is to be accomplished, and indicate how it will benefit the participants.
2. *Check perceptions of group members.* Ask for participant views on expectations, understanding of objectives. (Are we all clear on this?)
3. *Suggest a structure for the group.* Propose an approach and time frame. Modify, using group input, check for understanding (Is that okay with you?) before proceeding. Elements of structure may include following an outline or agenda, using a recorder and newsprint, round-robin participation, open discussion, appointing a summarizer or time-keeper, etc. All of these ideas serve to organize the group to accomplish the objective.
4. *Keep the group focused on the objectives.* It is normal to move off on tangents from the central question. Sometimes tangents are productive and yield good ideas. You must sense when the tangent is no longer productive and pull the group back. A question like "How does this relate to our objective?" or "We have strayed from the topic and need to return to the question of . . ." is a better intervention than not doing anything at all.
5. *Summarize frequently.* This can be done at intervals by the leader or by someone appointed to do it. Ten to fifteen minute intervals work well. "So far, we seem to have said . . ."
6. *See that all members have an equal chance to participate.* Some people are reluctant to speak out. Others can't get a word in because of aggressive individuals who are present. Use open questions directed to the reluctant ones. Ask the others to give everyone a chance. When you direct a question to the group, let your eyes meet those who seem reluctant.
7. *Thoroughly discuss all aspects of the situation.* It may be tempting to move into a new agenda item after only one or two members have aired their views. Thorough discussion is especially important in problem-solving situations, where it is easy to move to problem analysis before the problem has been completely or adequately defined.
8. *Display interest and enthusiasm.* The leader needs to be aware of all of the interrelationships of ideas and information. Listening is as important for the leader as it is for group members. By maintaining eye contact with the speaker and demonstrating appropriate "attending" behaviors, you can prevent yourself from losing a grip on content while you think about process.
9. *Bring the discussion to a definite conclusion.* In too many meetings, members rush off without arriving at a consensus or even a majority decision. The conclusion may be a summary of progress, a scan of recorded information on newsprint, or an evaluation of the meeting. Give some finality to the event in any case. This contributes to a sense of accomplishment and purpose.

Developed by Douglas S. Fleming (1985) for the Northeast Regional School Effectiveness Project. Northeast Regional Exchange, Chelmsford, MA. Used with permission.

Benchmarks to Measure the Success of Group Facilitation

1. People feel the meeting was worthwhile, not just an exercise; they have a feeling of accomplishment.
2. People feel they got something out of the meeting.
3. People feel that they could have done more.
4. People feel they contributed something to the meeting.
5. People feel they demonstrated their points of view to others.
6. People wouldn't mind working together again.
7. People came up with creative alternatives, options, solutions, insights, lists, descriptions.
8. People feel encouraged to massage ideas -- asking questions, building on previous statements.
9. People feel that they could have done it in less time; "next time," they say, "we'll get even more done."
10. People have made pledges to work toward certain goals or to accomplish specific tasks.

From "How to Make Meetings Work" by Michael Doyle & David Straus. Copyright © 1976 by Michael Doyle & David Straus. Reprinted by permission of Berkley Publishing Group.

Decision Making for School Site Councils

A. Preparation

1. Read the minutes of the previous meeting before the next one.
2. Know clearly what problems or items you want put on the agenda.
3. Bring all materials needed.

B. Behavior in the meeting

1. Be sure to submit your items for the agenda. State them very briefly; do not elaborate.
2. When you have an opinion or feeling, state it honestly and clearly.
3. Stay on the agenda item being discussed and help others stay on it.
4. When you don't understand something, ask for clarification.
5. Participate actively; when you have something to say, say it.
6. Because it is your meeting, take responsibility for doing things that will help the group function effectively:
   a. Start on time
   b. Establish the agenda
   c. Stay on the subject
   d. Keep order
   e. Listen to others
   f. Keep records
   g. Initiate discussion
   h. Arrive at decisions
   i. Quit on time
7. Protect the rights of others to have their opinions or feelings heard; encourage silent members to speak up.
8. Listen attentively to others; clarify what they are saying when it is necessary.
9. Try to think creatively about solutions that might resolve conflicts; try them out on the group.
10. Keep notes on things you agree to do after the meeting.
11. At all times, keep saying to yourself, "What would help this group move ahead and get this problem solved? What contribution can I make to help this group function more effectively? What does the group need? How can I help?"

C. After the meeting

1. Carry out your assignments and commitments.

2. Pass on to your constituents decisions or information that they should know.
3. Do not repeat statements or activities which might reflect poorly on a member.
4. Refrain from complaining about a decision on which the group agreed.

From: *Establishing School Site Councils: The School Improvement Program*, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, CA, 1977. Reprinted with permission.

Ground Rules for Meetings

1. Start on time.
2. Develop and review the agenda.
3. Conduct one piece of business at a time.
4. Participation is a right . . . and a responsibility.
5. Initiate ideas.
6. Support . . . challenge . . . counter.
   Differences resolved constructively lead to creative problem solving.
7. Give others a chance to talk.
   Silence does not always mean agreement.
8. Communicate authentically; what a person says should reflect what he thinks as well as what he feels.
9. Conduct group business in front of the group.
10. Conduct personal business outside of the meeting.
11. Develop conditions of respect, acceptance, trust, caring.
12. Develop alternative approaches to the solutions of a problem.
13. Test for readiness to make decisions.
14. Make the decision.
15. Assign follow-up actions and responsibilities.
16. Summarize what has been accomplished.
17. End on time.

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On the Value of Newsprint as a Facilitation Tool

People need to be able to see where they've come from. "How can I know what I think until I read it?"

Newsprint is used extensively as a tool for group thinking and problem solving. Summarizing major discussion points on newsprint with felt markers can dramatize the variety and extent of the group's thinking. It can help people refer back to earlier ideas and to expand on them. Newsprint notes can serve as the minutes of the session, or can be taken to the typewriter and copied for later distribution. The newsprint record can also be rolled up and saved for use at a follow-up meeting.

Below are some guidelines for the effective use of newsprint:

1. Write or print clearly, with letters large enough for everyone to read. Don't use yellow, orange or red (they all are difficult for some to read).
2. Use abbreviations or key words only if they are understood by the whole group.
3. Put a heading on every page; it reminds participants of the focus of the discussion.
4. Check that you have recorded or summarized a participant's points accurately.
5. Select a method for choosing from among a long list of ideas, a few on which to focus in the next phase or activity -- (by a vote, a point system, consensus).
6. There are some times when people need to look each other in the eye and talk. Be sensitive to this and don't let the presence of newsprint prevent this from happening.
7. Invite others to write the newsprint notes, serving as recorder. Sometimes you will want guest speakers to summarize or emphasize their own points this way.
8. There may be times when you are meeting in a room with enough wall space for newsprint for each participant. For some objectives it may be useful to post several discussion questions at the top of newsprint sheets and invite group members to record their own responses. There could even be multiple choice questions with a space for tally marks.

Developed by Douglas S. Fleming.

Strategies for Productive, Efficient Team Meetings

(A good starting point for a team is to negotiate which of these they will use.)

1. Start on time.
2. Encourage *Excitement Sharing*. Each meeting begins with the leader saying something like, "What is new and exciting in your lives since we last met?" Anyone who feels like it then briefly shares with the group any new and exciting experience, insight, feeling, etc. Some advantages of excitement sharing are: *it helps start meetings on time* since everyone does not have to be there to begin (since it is enjoyable, however, it encourages people to arrive on time); it helps participants get to know each other better. Caution: One danger is that excitement sharing could go on for hours; therefore, don't go beyond an agreed-upon limit, say 10 minutes.
3. Review and develop the meeting *agenda*. Near the beginning of each session, the agenda should be reviewed so that it can be changed or expanded to accommodate new ideas and priorities. The agenda should be handed out or recorded on newsprint in view of the whole group.
4. *Set time limits* for the meeting and perhaps for individual agenda items. You may have to set some agenda priorities.
5. Take *Action Minutes*. It is easy for a group to forget "*who* was going to do *what* by *when*?" *Action Minutes* provide a very complete but streamlined material record. See attached form.
6. Conduct one piece of business at a time. It may help to appoint one member of the group as a *task minder*.
7. Route off-task insights or problems to an *Odds and Ends List* for later attention. Often in the course of a meeting, problems or issues are raised that can sidetrack the group from its agenda. When these problems or issues are significant but not relevant to the task at hand, they can be routed to an *Odds and Ends List* which is carried forward to future meetings on the *Action Minutes*.
8. Continually work on the *group's process*.

   Encourage participation by all, even the quietest members. (Participation is a right . . . and a responsibility.)

   Communicate authentically. What a person says should reflect what he or she thinks as well as feels.

   Conduct group business in front of the group; conduct personal business outside of the meeting.

   Develop conditions of respect, acceptance, trust, and caring.

9. Develop *alternative approaches* to the solutions of a problem. In problem solving of almost any type, you are far more likely to choose the best path if you generate as many alternatives as possible.

   To start, encourage *all* possible ideas. Rule out evaluation. *Quantity* of ideas counts here. Pool your wild ideas. b. Review and clarify the ideas. Look for clues to something found in even the wildest ideas. Let the people who gave the idea explain what they had in mind.

   Apply the group's critical judgment to determine the best possible solutions from the total list.

10. Test the group for *readiness to make decisions*. Quickly answer these questions:

    Is the person or group most affected by the decision represented?

    Does the group have enough high quality information to make a decision?

    Does the group have the authority to make the decision? (Is the person or group who will be responsible for carrying out the decision represented?)

11. Determine what *decision-making method* suits each decision. (Develop a quick routine to do this.)

Decision-Making Method	Decision-Making Process	Consequences
Majority Decision	Vote, majority rules, the minority simply must accept decision.	May limit arguments or reduce the time required to reach agreement; tends to impede healthy discussion and may reduce constructive criticism.
Consensus Decision	Altering substance of decision through debate and discussion until all members can accept it.	Provides for alternative thinking and an interchange of ideas; tends to dissipate authority but also may reduce individual autonomy; requires high degree of interpersonal understanding and acceptance; time-consuming.

12. Make the decision (remember silence does not always mean agreement).
13. Assign follow-up actions and responsibilities on *Action Minutes*.
14. Summarize what has been accomplished.
15. Decide the date and place of the next meeting.

16. Develop a preliminary agenda for the next meeting. Refer to the *Odds and Ends List* for possible agenda items or direct those items elsewhere and record in *Action Minutes.*

17. Evaluate the meeting. (Look at the group's efficient, productive use of time and each group member's feelings about the team itself.)

    It is important to have an evaluation near the end of every meeting, not only to recognize the positive and exciting things you like about the meeting so that you can repeat them next time, but even more importantly, to identify those things about the session which participants didn't like so that you can make creative changes for the next meeting.

    Consider using an *Inside or Outside Assessment Technique.* Group process inventories completed first by individual team members and then shared by the group allows the team to analyze the group's efficient, productive use of time, as well as group behavior, roles and skills. At times it might be helpful to invite an outside observer to visit a meeting. He/She can use a group process inventory to record observations, share these observations at the end of the meeting, and facilitate a discussion on how the group is function.

18. *END ON TIME!!!!* Time is a precious commodity for team members. Respecting agreed-upon time limits builds team trust.

Team Members Present:

Action Minutes

Page ___ of ___

Today's Date______________________________

Recorder ________________________________

Date/time/place of next meeting ___________

____

Agenda Item	Staff Member Initiating	Summary of Discussion/Task List	Action Decision	Staff to Follow Up	Target Date Completion

Possible Agenda Items for Next Meeting	Odds and Ends List

Observer Guide

Things to look for:

Participation:	Did all have opportunities to participate? Were some excluded? Was an effort made to draw people out? Did a few dominate?
Leadership:	Did a leader, as such, emerge? Was a leader designated? Was leadership shared? Was there any structuring of the group?
Roles:	Who initiated ideas? Were they supported and by whom? Did anyone block? Who helped push for decisions?
Decision Making:	Did the group suggest lots of ideas before beginning to decide, or did it begin by deciding on only a single idea? Did everyone agree to the decisions made? Who helped influence decisions of others?
Communication:	Did people feel free to talk? Was there any interrupting or cutting people off? Did people listen to others? Were there clarifications of points made?
Sensitivity:	Were members sensitive to the needs and concerns of each other?

How well did the group work?

Poorly ⇐ 1 2 3 4 5 ⇒ Really Well

How could it work more effectively?

Some Characteristic Behaviors Found in Productive Groups

1. *Members listen intently.* They work at understanding what others are saying, ask others to repeat and clarify, paraphrase what they hear, and ask if they heard correctly.

   Who in this group is asking for clarification? ____________________

   Who is paraphrasing what others have said? ____________________

   Who is checking to see if he/she understands new ideas presented?

   ____

2. *Members make sure things are said clearly.* They elaborate, give illustrations, ask the listener to paraphrase what he/she has heard, repeat and re-state statements to insure increased correct input reception, and ask for confirmation as to whether the others heard correctly.

   Who in this group is being particularly careful to be sure others in the group understand what is being said? ____________________

3. *Members contribute to an awareness of the group's process.* They call attention to what is happening in the group and invite others to give their opinions and perceptions of what is going on.

   Who in this group is calling attention to how the group is doing?

   ____

   Who is asking how other members feel about how the group is working together? ____________________

   Who points out how decisions are being made in the group?

   ____

4. *Members keep alert to ways in which they can support others in the group.* They take various roles and functions from time to time that assist other group members to work more effectively.

   Who asks helpful questions? ____________________

   Who synthesizes/summarizes what has been said so far? ____________________

   Who uses humor to help the group move along? ____________________

5. *Members help the group by using a diagnostic approach.* They use their ability to understand *why* things have happened and offer to the group their observations and suggestions.

   Who makes suggestions to help the group? ______________________

   Who helps the group see where they have gotten bogged down? __________

   Who encourages the group to check ideas for workability without discouraging new ideas? ______________________

6. *Members operate as full members of the group.* They actively seek to learn and help others learn and work in the group.

   Who encourages quieter members of the group to participate? __________

   Who brings the group back to the task at hand? ______________________

   Who organizes "who will do what, when" to follow up a meeting?

   ____

7. *Members contribute to productive goal setting and decision making.*

   Who helps the group get started/restarted by suggesting tasks or goals?

   ____

   Who asks for or adds information on ideas presented?

   ____

   Who checks the whole group to see how much agreement has been reached?

   ____

A Yardstick for Measuring the Growth of a Team

As a group begins its life, and at several points during its growth, the leader and members might reflect on the following group characteristics and spend some time sharing the data that are collected. Through rating each characteristic, it is possible to get a general picture of the perceptions that various members have about the team and how it is developing. It is also possible to identify difficulties that may be blocking progress:

A. Goal Clarity

1	2	3	4	5
No apparent goals	Goal confusion	Average goal clarity	Goals mostly clear	Goals very clear

B. Trust and openness

1	2	3	4	5
None	Little	Average	Considerable	Remarkable

C. Empathy among members

1	2	3	4	5
None	Little	Average	Considerable	Remarkable

D. Balance between group task and maintenance needs

1	2	3	4	5
None	Little	Average	Good	Excellent

E. Leadership needs

1	2	3	4	5
Leadership needs not met	Some leadership needs met	Average meeting of leadership needs	Good meeting of leadership needs	Excellent meeting of leadership needs

F. Decision making

1	2	3	4	5
Unable to make decisions	Inadequate decision making	Average decision making	Good decision making	Full consensus

G. Use of group resources (knowledges, skills, experiences)

1	2	3	4	5
Not used	Poorly used	Average use	Well used	Fully and effectively used

H. Sense of belonging

1	2	3	4	5
None	Some	Average	Good	Strong

General Assessment of Project Health

Please rate each of the items below on a five point scale:

Disagree	Partially Disagree	Unsure	Partially Agree	Fully Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. Trying to translate the original goals into action steps has turned up unforeseen problems in our project operations. ____
2. We have no difficulty in asking for assistance from outside consultants when we need it. ____
3. There is a firm commitment to project goals on the part of administrators who influence the project. ____
4. The staff have the abilities and skills needed to do an excellent job with this project. ____
5. On specific issues I am often confused about who is really in charge. ____
6. The staff's behavior shows a firm commitment to the goals of the project. ____
7. We are trying to do too much. ____
8. Interpersonal conflict is slowing us down. ____
9. We allow documentation requirements to interfere with service to clients. ____
10. I have trouble knowing when the project is successful because the criteria of success are unclear. ____
11. The school district sees the project as an integral and desirable part of its operations. ____
12. Decision-making power is too widely dispersed. ____
13. Our lack of attention to outside political considerations tends to create problems for us. ____
14. As far as I can see, "hidden agendas" among the staff are not weakening the project. ____

From: The NETWORK, Inc. "General Assessment of Project Health." Andover, MA, 1979. Reprinted with permission.

Assessing Council Meeting Effectiveness

Please assign the number that best describes your council meetings.

1 -- not typical of our meetings
2 -- fairly typical
3 -- typical of our meetings

1. _____ Members of the council know what items are to be discussed prior to the meeting.
2. _____ Members arrive on time for the meeting.
3. _____ An equitable procedure for getting items on the agenda is being implemented.
4. _____ Members carry out commitments agreed upon at the meetings.
5. _____ Members are free to say how they truly feel about a problem.
6. _____ Members keep confidentialities when agreed to.
7. _____ A problem is thoroughly understood before a vote is taken.
8. _____ Members ask clarifying questions when in doubt.
9. _____ The "real" problems which are currently important to the members are discussed.
10. _____ Members assist each other in staying on the topic, controlling excessive talkers, interruptions, etc.
11. _____ Members have a chance to consider more than one solution to a problem.
12. _____ Decisions made at the meetings are clearly understood.
13. _____ It is clear who is to carry out what decisions and when they are to be completed.
14. _____ Members care about the children in the project for which they are advising and work on their behalf.
15. _____ As a member of the council, I am an active participant in the meetings and have an opportunity to assume important responsibilities.
16. _____ Members have a clear understanding of the budget and how it relates to implementing the school plan.

From: J. Carney and J. Chrispeels, *Schools and Communities Working Together for Effective Schools and Stronger Communities,* San Diego County Office of Education, San Diego, CA, 1984. Reprinted with permission.

Analyzing Group Goals

Directions: Answer the following questions by placing an "X" in the blank and writing down what you think. The instrument is most useful if all members complete it. The information can then be examined in light of how all members view the group's goals and how they are formulated.

	Yes	No	Don't Know
1. Does your group have goals for its work with which most members agree?	____	____	____
2. Are the goals stated or written down anywhere?	____	____	____

3. In your own words write down your group's goals:

	Yes	No	Don't Know
4. Do you feel the goals are appropriate and suitable for the group?	____	____	____
5. Do you feel the goals are realistic and attainable for the group?	____	____	____
6. Do the goals meet your own needs?	____	____	____
7. Did you have an opportunity to formulate or influence the goals?	____	____	____
8. Does your group periodically review and revise its goals?	____	____	____

From: "Measuring and Improving Group Effectiveness," Key to Community Involvement Series, #11, National School Public Relations Association, Arlington, VA, 1978. Reprinted with permission.

Assessing Group Cohesiveness

	Agree	Undecided	Disagree
1. The council has achieved most of its goals in the past year.	_____	_____	_____
2. Members generally attend all meetings.	_____	_____	_____
3. A high degree of trust exists among council members.	_____	_____	_____
4. What I say is recognized and valued by the council.	_____	_____	_____
5. I am proud of being a member of the council.	_____	_____	_____
6. I feel a strong ownership of our program and projects.	_____	_____	_____
7. Members of the council really care about each other.	_____	_____	_____
8. New members are made to feel welcome.	_____	_____	_____
9. At meetings I feel included.	_____	_____	_____
10. If I miss a meeting, I feel I have missed something important.	_____	_____	_____
11. Members work on tasks together.	_____	_____	_____

From: Carney, J. and J. Chrispeels, *Schools and Communities Working Together for Effective Schools and Stronger Communities*, San Diego County Office of Education, San Diego, CA, 1984. Reprinted with permission.

Assessing Group Communication

Directions: Answer the following questions on the basis of your participation in and experience with this group. A compilation of all members' responses may be used to pinpoint communication problems.

	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
1. I ask questions when I don't know something.	_____	_____	_____
2. I keep my real thoughts and feelings to myself.	_____	_____	_____
3. I have opportunities to talk during group discussions.	_____	_____	_____
4. When I feel irritated or impatient with what's going on, I communicate my feelings to the group.	_____	_____	_____
5. If I am unsure about what someone means, I relay my understanding of their comment and check to see if my understanding is accurate.	_____	_____	_____
6. I withhold personal feelings and stick to the facts in a discussion.	_____	_____	_____
7. I agree with another individual or like what they say without letting them know.	_____	_____	_____
8. I listen to and carefully consider others' ideas.	_____	_____	_____
9. I ask others to tell me what they really think of my work.	_____	_____	_____
10. I ask others who seem to be hurt or upset to express their feelings.	_____	_____	_____

From: "Measuring and Improving Group Effectiveness," Keys to Community Involvement Series, #11, National School Public Relations Association, Arlington, VA, 1978. Reprinted with permission.

How Are Our Team Meetings Going?

A Checklist

Always	Sometimes	Never	
_____	_____	_____	1. We start our meeting on time.
_____	_____	_____	2. We begin our meetings with a "limited" period of **Excitement Sharing** (a time for members to catch up on new and exciting experiences, insights, etc.).
_____	_____	_____	3. We review and develop the meeting's agenda before beginning work.
_____	_____	_____	4. We set time limits for the meeting (and perhaps individual agenda items).
_____	_____	_____	5. We identify a recorder to take **Action Minutes** using a form developed for that purpose.
_____	_____	_____	6. We use an **Odds and Ends List** to avoid getting side tracked on important but "off-task" issues.
_____	_____	_____	7. We encourage participation by all, even our quietest members.
_____	_____	_____	8. We use **Brainstorming** to develop alternative approaches to the solutions of a problem.
_____	_____	_____	9. We test our group to see if we are ready before making a decision.
_____	_____	_____	10. We use an established routine to identify which **Decison Making Method** we will use for a particular decision (majority vote, consensus, etc.).
_____	_____	_____	11. We finalize plans on "who will do what by when" on the Action Minutes before concluding our meetings.
_____	_____	_____	12. We summarize what has been accomplished in each meeting.
_____	_____	_____	13. We briefly evaluate each session in terms of the group's efficient, productive use of time and each member's feelings about how the team is operating.
_____	_____	_____	14. We use "self-assessment" tools to assist our team in analyzing its effectiveness.
_____	_____	_____	15. We end our meetings on time.

Characteristics I Value in a Colleague

We have to work with others often. Below is a list of qualities or characteristics that might describe someone you work with. Read through the list and select the three most desirable or important characteristics and the three least desirable.

Take two minutes to explain your choices and the reasons for them to other members of your group. After that, make an attempt as a group to arrive at consensus on the three most important or desirable qualities and the three least important or desirable qualities.

Most Important or Desirable:

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

Least Important or Desirable:

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

_____ 1. Listens carefully and communicates effectively
_____ 2. Friendly and sociable
_____ 3. Orderly and efficient
_____ 4. Good sense of humor
_____ 5. Admits errors openly and honestly
_____ 6. Is creative and has new ideas
_____ 7. Shows respect and consideration for others
_____ 8. Uses praise frequently
_____ 9. Does what you want him/her to do
_____ 10. Is willing to compromise
_____ 11. Never becomes angry; stays calm and cool
_____ 12. Follows rules and procedures
_____ 13. Says what he/she thinks; is frank
_____ 14. Honest and trustworthy
_____ 15. Helpful and supportive of others
_____ 16. Independent and self-reliant
_____ 17. Punctual and responsible
_____ 18. Strives to do his/her best

Adapted from: I/D/E/A "We Agree" Workshop.

Guidelines for Assessing Team Effectiveness

1. Keep the number of questions or discussion items low. The fewer, the better.
2. Ask for what you really need to know. If the information cannot be used to make decisions about improving team performance, don't ask for it.
3. Include open-ended questions so that unanticipated needs or problems can be identified.
4. Provide the group with prompt feedback on the results. This will demonstrate your commitment to improvement and insistence on action to achieve results.
5. Be prepared to follow through on suggestions or to take action on items where perceptions differ markedly. To ignore either will speak louder than any exhortations to the contrary.

Needs Assessment:
A Fable about Three Pigs

Once upon a time there were three pigs who were faced with the problem of coping with the big, bad wolf.

The first pig was quite oblivious to the realities of the situation and the consequences of his behavior. "What is a big, bad wolf?" he mumbled as he nonchalantly gathered straw with which to build his house.

The second pig was an old-timer in this wolf-fending business and, after contemplating the wolf phenomenon by himself for a short period of time, decided what was "needed" was a house constructed to withstand winds that exceeded the velocity of the huffing and puffing by the big, bad wolf. He contacted the National Science Foundation for funds to construct a wind tunnel. Then, with the services of a local architect and building construction firm, he tested a variety of different house styles to determine which plan would withstand the wolf's most forceful huffs and puffs. Although the investment was substantial (12 million corn cobs), the second pig was quite pleased with himself, particularly when he demanded that the house be built to withstand *five times* the maximum huffing and puffing ever recorded by modern pig for a single wolf. Now he was protected, even if several wolves were to come to his door at the same time!

The third pig was dismayed by the behavior of the first pig but was captivated by the expensive yet seemingly worthwhile steps the second pig was taking to construct a wolf-proof house. Nonetheless, she was somewhat uncomfortable with the second pig's approach, particularly when she had learned that the advice of friendly wolves had not been sought in the planning stages of the second pig's project. To satisfy her desire for a third opinion, she brought together representatives from a variety of constituencies who had dealt with wolves, including a couple of friendly huffers and puffers. After considerable interviewing of pigs, pig house builders, and expert wolf-fenders, surveying, analyzing available relevant data, and brainstorming with respected colleagues concerning possible side effects associated with various alternatives, she decided to build a modest brick pig house with some unusual but necessary landscaping. The whole process from conceptualizing the problem, systematically determining her "needs," and building the house cost about 65,000 corn cobs -- substantially more than your average brick pig house but far less than the second pig's wind tunnel-tested domicile.

One day, the mean, old wolf passed by the three houses. From the wolf's perspective, the straw house amused him (his grandfather had told him stories about how easy those were to blow down), and the others looked pretty much the same (after all, a brick house is just a brick house). The wolf thought that a pig dinner was just what he "needed" (actually what he wanted). The story of the first little pig is well known.

Developed for the National Inservice Network, Bloomington, Indiana.

As the big, bad wolf walked up to the second pig's house, he uttered a warning to the old-timer that was confidently rejected. With this rebuff, the wolf, instead of huffing and puffing, pulled out a sledge hammer, knocked the door down, and ate the spendy but short-sighted old-timer for dessert.

Still not satisfied, the wolf ambled up the third pig's walk to repeat his act. Suddenly, a trap door in front of the house opened and the wolf dropped neatly into a deep, dark pit and was never heard from again.

Morals:

1. It's hard to teach old pigs new tricks.
2. Anything built with federal funding is always overpriced.
3. Before you invest lots of energy and money meeting a need, you'd better be sure the need, as you have defined it, actually exists.

Summary of Best Practices in Assessment

Although there is not one "correct" method to assess school and staff needs, a number of good practices typical of effective needs assessment have been identified. Experience indicates the importance of the following:

1. *Needs assessment should be a conscious public activity.* Staff and other members of the school community should be informed of what is happening throughout the process. The results of the assessment should be disseminated to those persons who participated in it as well as other audiences who may have an interest. This helps to establish credibility of the programs and commitment to their implementation.
2. *Needs assessment should be an ongoing process.* As staff members become more knowledgeable, their awareness of their needs changes and deepens. Generic needs may be identified initially. An awareness of more specific needs, however, usually follows.
3. *Staff perceptions about their own needs must be viewed as important.* Participants should be involved in planning the needs assessment, prioritizing needs, and deciding about the program. If school staff do not themselves feel a need or desire to change, the content of training sessions is far less likely to be assimilated. By making staff partially responsible for assessing their own needs, as well as the needs of others, the process itself becomes educational and part of staff development.
4. *Needs should be individualized by building.* Staff will be more enthusiastic about programs that assist them with their specific needs relative to their job responsibilities. The needs in one building may vary widely from those of another. Individual needs of staff within the buildings may also differ and should be recognized.
5. *Needs assessment information should be gathered from more than one source, using different data collection techniques.* This results in a more comprehensive identification of needs and improves the chances that the needs identified are indeed valid and legitimate. A survey alone cannot document need.
6. *An analysis should also be made of strengths of the system.* Because needs assessment tends to focus on what is "missing," identification of the strengths of the system and staff can help keep a balanced perspective and can also bolster confidence.
7. *There must be a visible relationship between the needs assessment and the program delivered.* Conducting a needs assessment leads people to expect that programs will be developed to meet those needs.

Adapted from "Needs Assessment for Inservice Education: Building Local Programs," National Inservice Network, Bloomington, Indiana, August 1980.

Considerations:

Determining a Focus for Professional Growth

Establish a Trusting Climate:

Needs assessment has a tarnished reputation. Too often, teachers are "needs assessed" to death with no visible results or, at best, a workshop or two on topics of interest. Sometimes a needs assessment is used only to validate decisions which have already been made. It's not surprising that teachers don't always respond with great enthusiasm to yet another needs assessment. Trust in both the outcome and the process of assessment must be established. Communication and genuine involvement help and are critical to the process. Staff need to know what is happening in an assessment, why it's being done, who is doing it, and what will happen with the results. They also need to be involved as participants as well as planners in the assessment process. Staff perceptions of their own needs are important. Recognition of their legitimacy helps to establish trust and commitment. Personalizing an assessment through one-to-one or small group contact also helps to open communication and build trust.

Determine Who Is Responsible and the Parameters of the Task:

Assessment and goal setting is an influential and, therefore, important responsibility, and open and honest discussion about who should be responsible for it is needed. Don't assume that everyone knows or necessarily agrees. Is it the district staff development team? the administrative team? building staff? Will the assessment and goal setting be designed and conducted at the building level or districtwide? This latter question is important and has implications for who should be responsible.

Building-based teams can be particularly effective in these activities because the teachers are credible and know their school, its players, and the data that are available. They can personalize an assessment and play a critical role in gathering and analyzing data. Use of a building team will increase the likelihood that appropriate information will not only be gathered, but used as a basis for action. For a comprehensive assessment, the added numbers are a necessity. A team also assures consideration of multiple perspectives.

Different groups may play different roles in the assessment process. For example, building staff can carry out a districtwide assessment (designed by the district team) in addition to determining and gathering additional information to identify needs and goals peculiar to their school. The district team can determine a districtwide procedure to be used in all schools and survey the results to determine common needs. The school board can determine the focus of the districtwide assessment. The uniqueness of each school is thus recognized, while still gathering some common data.

The scope of an assessment should also be considered. A needs assessment may be a broad and comprehensive process involving collection and examination of considerable data, internal and external to a school. Such a comprehensive process may take as long as six to eight months, is very educational, and should be conducted every few years. However, it also takes time and other resources. If a school staff is in the midst of implementing new curricula, responding to state mandates and generally feeling stretched and stressed, it may not be the right time for a comprehensive assessment. The availability of resources such as time, staff, money, and secretarial support should be considered and may in part define the scope of an assessment. A good assessment doesn't have to be a big one. It may be very focused and specific, involving considerably less time and collection of information.

Consider Alternative Approaches to Determining Needs for Professional Development:

There are a variety of ways to go about determining needs for professional growth and a variety of conditions or information sources which may help in narrowing down the focus. Some assessments draw on internal knowledge of staff, others draw on the external knowledge base about learning and teaching. Curricular changes, mandates, major school problems, research on good teaching and learning, and exemplary programs can all serve as starting points in the process of determining what is needed. The value in considering these approaches is that it can help make the focus of an assessment both reasonable and feasible.

A problem-focused approach is common. Major school problems are identified and then used to set staff development goals. This is an appropriate approach for a school experiencing significant problems.

Curriculum may also provide the basis for professional development goals. New curricula often involve learning new skills or acquiring additional knowledge. The initiation of curricular changes should be considered as the focus for staff development.

Research on good teaching and learning is another source of information which can be used to help determine goals for professional development. The research can serve as a measure of effectiveness against which to compare current teaching and school practices. It can also stimulate good discussion and thought, regardless of whether staff agree with it.

Exemplary programs are still another source of information which can be used and help in the articulation of more desirable conditions or needs. The programs may spark recognition of a need of which staff are unaware. It's hard to know you need things you don't know about. Teachers are unlikely, for example, to say they need training in alternative models of teaching or thinking skills unless they are aware that such programs exist. And yet there may be a very real need for continued learning of these skills. This approach is particularly appropriate in schools with experienced, stable staff. An examination of exemplary programs can extend their knowledge and prod an examination of new or refined practices that might not otherwise occur.

Mandates from the state department, school board, or superintendent may also determine a focus for staff development. If a mandate's relative importance is high, it can provide useful momentum for initiation of new learning for staff.

Each of these approaches involves some collection of information, varying from much to little.

Decide on a Focus and What Information Is Needed to Arrive at It:

This is an important step in the assessment process and one that is frequently overlooked. Too often people get captivated by a particular needs assessment instrument which may not in fact gather relevant information. It is important to ask what it is necessary to find out. This question focuses an assessment and suggests information to gather. The focus may be broad or very specific. A broad focusing question is: What are the school's major problems? If in the midst of curricular changes, a more specific focus for a needs assessment might be: What concerns do teachers have and to what extent are they implementing the new language arts curriculum? An example of a guiding question in a "research says" approach to assessing needs is: How do we measure up against effective schooling variables? And finally, if considering some exemplary programs, the focusing question might be: What are three of the hottest (and most successful) programs around, and how do we measure up against them? Each of these questions suggests different sources of information and methods of collection.

The most common sources of information are staff, students, and parents. Information about student academic performance, social performance, and attitudes may be collected. Similarly, data on teacher performance and attitudes can also be gathered. The amount of information collected can vary considerably, depending on what is necessary to find out. Some of the approaches, such as the problem-focused approach, will probably mean more data collection, whereas others, such as exemplary programs or mandates, may require relatively little.

Decide How to Collect the Information:

A needs assessment doesn't have to be a written survey. There are many different ways to gather information that can help in determining professional growth needs. Commonly used methods include observation, interviews, and questionnaires. It is also possible to determine needs without gathering any new data and instead analyzing information which already exists in the school archives. Examples of archival data include test scores, attendance and suspension records, and program review reports. Most schools have lots of archival data which may be useful.

Use several methods or sources of information. A multi-faceted approach ensures validation of needs and increases the likelihood that needs are legitimate. A combination of tools that draw on the internal knowledge of staff and the external knowledge base on teaching and learning is particularly effective. Multiple information sources are usually necessary to dig, to clarify and define needs, and to get beyond the superficial.

The advantages and disadvantages of different data collection methods should be considered. All techniques, even the popular nominal group process, have both. The methods chosen should match both the focus of the assessment (what needs to be found out) as well as the context of the school. If an instrument is not thoughtfully and appropriately matched to the needs and context of a school, the result can be a collection of irrelevant and useless information. Predesigned instruments are particularly seductive because development time can be skipped. A 100 item written questionnaire designed to measure effective schooling variables in urban high schools in unlikely, however, to yield timely and useful information in a small, rural school suffering from low moral and poor communication. The form itself is likely to increase alienation. Inappropriate data collection only adds fuel to the rightfully tarnished reputation of needs assessment.

Give some thought to the people from whom information is gathered. Eager staff developers often want to gather information from everyone. Care is needed, however. Being asked about wants and dreams implies that something will happen. Be sure that something can be done with the results. If not, it's better not to ask.

Collect the Information:

No matter how carefully designed an assessment is, it can fail miserably if conducted carelessly. Considering a few questions will help. To start with, who should collect the data? Trust, credibility, and skill should be considered. One high school "excellence" team (which included the principal) prohibited the principal from gathering information from teachers because of the issue of trust. If the plan calls for examining student or staff records, access and confidentiality might be an issue. If observation is planned, then people who have the skills and credibility, as well as trust, will need to do it.

Prior notification of the location and time of a needs assessment can affect its success. Participants in an assessment should be informed in advance of its purpose and a good time and location selected. Early release is often obtained for methods that require several hours. Such a strategy is also a clear statement of administrative support and signals the importance of the activity. Previously scheduled faculty meetings are also commonly used. Making time for the assessment is, therefore, not added on to other responsibilities.

Personalizing an assessment through use of small groups and face-to-face interaction (instead of a written memo) to let people know when something will occur and to give or get information can contribute greatly to a positive and trusting climate.

Analyze and Synthesize the Information:

Once the data have been gathered, the next step is to analyze and find meaning in them. There are no tricks to this. Groups inevitably have organizers and synthesizers, and these people can be depended on to help. But the task should be given sufficient time, since careful reflection and discussion are necessary if meaning is to be more than superficial.

Define the Needs and Identify Improvement Goals:

Problem or need definition is a phase of planning which is typically resisted. Most people tend to assume that others perceive the world and interpret information in a similar fashion, leading to similar versions of needs. This is rarely the case. Most data can be interpreted in different ways and discussion – sometimes a lot of it – will help clarify the needs. If the needs are not clearly understood and defined, the likelihood of resolving them is minimal and any improvement strategies will be superficial at best.

Resulting goals should be understandable as well as workable and controllable. If the success of a goal depends on the involvement and support of others, actions must be taken to ensure their support. Goals should also be limited in number. Enthusiastic staff often try to do too much, resulting in innovation overload. But learning, applying new information, or rethinking old information takes time. It mustn't be shortchanged. Significant improvement efforts should be limited to one or two per year.

Disseminate Results:

The results of the assessment should be reported to all stakeholders as soon as possible. In addition to school staff and school board, this may mean key members of the community and parents. If parents are involved in and informed of the process to identify professional development needs, they are more likely to support the resulting professional development activities.

Needs Assessment Vignettes

	PROBLEM-FOCUSED	RESEARCH SAYS	CURRICULUM	EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS	MANDATES
THE SCHOOL AND CONTEXT	Norstar High School: A dispirited place, low morale, and no communication among staff. School suffering from poor reputation within district and region. Strong new principal. Core of teachers willing to try to turn the image around.	Sternland High School: A large urban high school with reputation in and out of state for academic achievement. Involved in "school within a school" project that split staff. New involvement in state restructuring project. Explosive situation.	Jackson Elementary: In a classic state of innovation overload – an overabundance of new curriculum projects. Programs were well designed and trainers top notch, but teachers were angry and worn out. Simply too much to do. Most decision making was top-down.	Kingman Elementary: The most traditional of the district's nine elementary schools. Faculty and staff tenured and historically resistant to innovation. Considered staff development an unnecessary frill. However, student population was changing, presenting increasingly diverse needs. Tried and true techniques weren't working as well.	Mountain View: Limited dabbling in staff development. Individually driven. Little leadership from principal, but a couple teachers interested in working more together. Outspoken and negative teacher leader set the climate. Considered themselves the underdogs of the system.
THE STRUCTURE AND PROCESS FOR IDENTIFYING NEEDS	"Excellence" leadership team composed of strong, influential, and action-oriented staff. Each member responsible for getting and giving information from eight designated staff members. Personalized needs assessment.	A needs assessment task force composed of six teachers representing all factions in the school. (Was a part of a larger restructuring planning group.) Two teacher leaders responsible for communication with all departments.	A "TAT" (teacher assistance team) to focus on problems associated with new programs.	No formal structure. A group of six "opinion" leaders interested in change. Support from principal.	No formal structure. Two teachers, with principal's sanction, talked to all other teachers to see if any were interested.
FOCUSING QUESTION(S)	What are our school's major problems?	What do we need to do to unify our staff? How do we measure up against effective schooling variables?	What concerns do our teachers have and to what extent are they implementing the new math and language arts curriculum?	What programs might help us better meet the needs of our kids?	How can we use what we have to do in staff development to meet our own needs?
METHODS TO GATHER INFORMATION	• Nominal Group Process • Archival Dig • Follow-up questionnaire	• Michigan School Climate Survey • Follow-up questionnaire	• Stages of Concern Questionnaire • Follow-up observation and interview	• Informal phone calls to several area teachers involved in other programs • Discussion with principal regarding programs offered • Attendance at information session on "Models of Teaching"	• Legislation requiring training in peer coaching.
OUTCOME-IMPROVEMENT GOAL(S)	To develop and use consistent discipline practices	To develop a collaborative decision-making structure within the school	To develop strategies to support teachers, implementing the new curriculum	To learn alternative models of teaching	To train interested staff in peer coaching

Worksheet for Approaches

Professional Growth Activities (List those you've participated in within the past two years . . .)	Problem Focus	Mandate	Curriculum	Exemplary Programs	Research
E.g., Models of Teaching				X	
E.g., Peer Coaching		X			

Approaches to Determine Professional Development Needs

	PROBLEM-FOCUSED	RESEARCH SAYS	CURRICULUM	EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS	MANDATES
OVERVIEW	Major school problems are identified and used as a basis for staff development goals. Is particularly appropriate in schools facing significant problems that affect most of school and impede learning. Is commonly used in schools facing school climate problems.	Sets the knowledge base about teaching and leaning as a desirable condition and uses it as a framework for determining needs. Is usually liked by administrators and disliked by teachers. Is appropriate in schools not facing major problems.	Uses curricular changes as the basis for staff development. Is appropriate in schools involved in the implementation of new curricula.	Existing, exemplary staff development programs are examined and used to spark recognition of needs. Is particularly appropriate in good schools with experienced, stable staff.	Staff development needs are determined by persons above, usually the superintendent or state department. Is particularly appropriate when the needs are obvious, and resources are provided to address the needs.
ADVANTAGES	Focuses on relevant and deeply felt problems that must be addressed. Can unify and mobilize a staff.	Can extend the knowledge of staff and move them beyond the familiar. Stimulates reflection and inquiry regardless of whether or not one agrees with the information.	Extends the likelihood that curriculum will be implemented successfully and that staff development will be relevant.	Can spark recognition of needs of which the staff were unaware. Can extend knowledge and prod an examination of new or refined practices that might not otherwise occur. May be time consuming.	Avoids time of doing a needs assessment, can focus in stead on developing appropriate programs to address needs. Can lead to identification of real but unpopular or unknown needs that must or should be addressed. Can "unfreeze" unmotivated individuals and head them in a positive direction.
POTENTIAL PROBLEMS	Can restrict a vision only to the negatives. Usually requires considerable time.	Overcoming teacher resistance to research. Doesn't necessarily get at teacher felt needs.	Doesn't touch other school problems and may not get at teacher felt needs.	Are prone to being faddish. May not respond to major staff needs. Assumes thorough researching of programs and matching with school needs.	Can result in limited ownership and commitment from the staff. Must work hard to overcome such resistance. Sometimes doesn't touch school problems or needs felt by staff.

Four Techniques for Assessment

Interviews:

Use interviews when:

1. It is necessary to observe not only what a respondent says but *how* (e.g. evasive, eager, reluctant) it is said.
2. It is necessary to build up and maintain rapport to keep respondent interested and *motivated to finish questions.*
3. *High participation by target group* is needed.
4. *Population is accessible.*
5. Supplemental information may be needed for *respondent's understanding* and to prevent misinterpretation of the questions.
6. *Budget* will allow for expense of this method.
7. It is necessary for respondent to react to visual materials.
8. *Spontaneous reactions* are necessary with sufficient time and probes to recall relevant information.
9. Information about the respondent's personal characteristics and environment is needed to interpret results and evaluate the representativeness of the persons surveyed.
10. It is desirable to collect information and build support for the idea simultaneously.
11. There are *time and resources to properly train and supervise* interviewers (otherwise data recorded may be inaccurate or incomplete).

Major steps:

1. Specify focus of interview – information to be gathered and target audience characteristics.
2. Establish time frame and identify interviewers.
3. Develop questions to be included in interview.
4. Try out the interview.
5. Conduct the interviews.
   a. Motivate the respondent to answer.

Adapted and updated from: Martha Williams. "Needs Assessment Instrument Categories," The NETWORK, Inc., Andover, MA, 1978. Reprinted with permission of The NETWORK, Inc.

b. Give the respondent a "stake" in the interview (i.e. chance to influence change).

c. Establish rapport.

d. Record responses using respondent's own words.

e. Be prepared to probe for clarification, amplification, etc.

f. Summarize major points at end as a check.

Sources of interview information:

1. Structured questions and structured responses
2. Structured questions and open responses
3. Semi-structured; unstructured

Strengths of interviews as information sources:

1. Personal
2. Promote support for the process/idea
3. Allow for probing and explanation
4. Rich data

Limitations of interviews as information sources:

1. Take time of both interviewer and responder
2. May need to sample responders
3. Dependent to some extent on skills and credibility of interviewer
4. May be threatening; not anonymous
5. Recording and compilation of data more difficult

For further information on interviewing techniques:

Bradburn, N.A., Sudman, S. & Associates. *Improving Interview Methods and Questionnaire Design*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979.

Mangione, T.W., Higson, R. & Barrett, J. Collecting Sensitive Data: A comparison of three survey strategies. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 10:3, 337-346.

Sudman, S. and Bradburn, N.M. *Asking Questions*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1982.

Wolf, R. *Strategies for Conducting Naturalistic Evaluation in Socio-Educational Settings*. Occasional Paper Series of the Evaluation Center, Western Michigan University, 1979.

Questionnaires/Surveys

Use questionnaires when:

1. Wide distribution is necessary (and budget will not permit telephone interview).
2. A sense of *privacy* is needed.
3. *Complete uniformity* in the manner in which questions are posed is necessary to avoid biasing responses.
4. *Presence of interviewers* is likely to affect responses.
5. Respondent needs to *secure or check information.*
6. Obtaining *unanticipated* definitions of situations and quantifiable responses is *not* desired.
7. Self administration and ease *are* desired.
8. Cost must be kept to a minimum.

Major steps:

1. Specify information to be gathered.
2. Frame questions to be included.
   a. Clear and understandable.
   b. Logical sequence.
   c. Spacing and format making type of response clear.
   d. *Pretest questionnaire* and modify if needed.
3. Determine to whom and how questionnaires will be distributed and how high a return rate will be needed.
   a. Distribute and collect at meeting of respondents.
   b. Self-addressed stamped envelope for return.
4. Compile results of questionnaire and summarize.

Questionnaire/Survey as information sources:

1. "Pencil and paper" questionnaire.
2. "Door-to-door" questions.
3. "Person-in-the-street" questions.
4. "Feedback" sheets.

Strengths of questionnaires/surveys:

1. Quick.
2. Anonymous.
3. Can reach large numbers in a short time.
4. Easy coding.
5. Quantifiable information.
6. Inexpensive.
7. Can be pre/post measurement.
8. Can be modified.
9. Many predesigned questionnaires linked to research on teaching and schools are available.
10. Those based on research can educate as well.

Limitation of questionnaires/surveys:

1. No probing -- not way to elaborate -- must be followed up.
2. Questions may be interpreted differently.
3. Need to establish a climate for administering tool.
4. May be difficult to construct.

For further information about questionnaire and survey techniques:

Fowler, Floyd J. Jr. *Survey Research Methods.* Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1984.

Lockhart, D.C. (Ed.) *Making Effective Use of Mailed Questionnaires.* Columbus, GA: Tech Systems, Inc., 1984.

Oppenheim, A. *Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement.* New York: Basic Books, 1966.

Observations

Use observations when:

1. First hand experience is required.
2. Respondents may not be able to relate directly needed information.
3. Budget allows for observers' time required for lengthy observations.

4. Sufficient time in the needs assessment plan is available to make reliable observations.

Major steps:

1. Determine format for observation including:
    a. Extent to which observation guide is structured prior to observations.
    b. Extent to which observer is or is not a participant in the activity being observed.
    c. Extent to which subjects are aware of observer's role and purpose.
2. Identify site or observational situation.
3. Try out observation form beforehand as a group.
4. Gain access or permission to observe -- establish an agreement.
5. Take overt or covert role of observer.
6. Establish trust and rapport (may not be necessary if observation is unobtrusive).
7. Record observations using one or more of the following:
    a. Predetermined schedule or checklist.
    b. Note-taking in narrative form.
    c. Tape record observations as they occur.

Observation information sources:

1. Checklists.
2. Time samples.
3. Open-ended.

Strengths of observation information sources:

1. Can be focused or open.
2. Rich data.
3. Yields specific, concrete data.

Limitations of observation information sources:

1. Takes time of observer.
2. Not always trusted by persons being observed.
3. Dependent to some extent on skills of observer.

For further information about observation techniques:

Eisner, E.W. The Use of Qualitative Forms of Evaluation for Improving Educational Practice. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 1979, 1:6.

Hartman, D.P. (Ed). Using Observers to Study Behavior, in New Directions for Methodology of Social and Behavioral Science # 14, December 1982.

Archival Material

Use archival material when:

1. Appropriate records are easily and legally accessible.
2. Budget limits the use of more expensive data gathering methods.
3. Time and space restrictions do not permit direct access to target population.
4. Naturally occurring data from the target setting are desired as opposed to more contrived data from interviews, questionnaires, etc. "Let the record speak for itself."
5. Information is needed to supplement and substantiate information obtained through interviews and other methods.
6. Potential errors in records can be recognized and dealt with through others needs assessment.
7. Comparisons across record-keeping systems are feasible (similar formats, language, type of information).
8. Repeated measures of values, attitudes, etc. are desired over time.

Major steps:

1. Determine data desired from records.
2. Determine appropriate sources of data. Random stratified or purposive sample of available documents is preferable.
3. Contact persons in charge of appropriate records and gain access to records.
4. Review records for desired information using document analysis techniques. More than one judge is desirable for subsets of documents.
5. Summarize information obtained from each record or document with attention giver to issues of completeness and accuracy.
6. Collapse information across records using emergent categories to gain more general picture.

Sample archival information sources:

1. School self-evaluation.
2. Accreditation.
3. Vocational education or special education needs assessment.
4. Student achievement records.
5. Evaluation of teachers.
6. Building administrators' reports.
7. Central administration reports on particular programs.
8. Grant applications and proposals.
9. Library check out records.
10. Attendance records.
11. Repair bills.
12. Parent surveys.
13. School Board minutes.

Strengths of archival information sources:

1. Already available.
2. Usually public information.
3. May be used to support or refute data from another information source.
4. Good way to "dig".

Limitations of archival information sources:

1. No personal contact.
2. Not always in useable form to synthesize and analyze.
3. May not know where to find sources.

For further information about archival material:

Anderson, D., and Benjamison, P. *Investigative Reporting*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press, 1976.

Guba, E. "Toward a methodology of naturalistic inquiry for educational evaluation," *CSE Monograph Series No. 8*. Los Angeles: UCLA, Center for the Study of Evaluation, 1978.

Williams, P.N. *Investigative Reporting and Editing*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1978.

Examples of Archival Data Related to Dimensions of Effective Schools

Safe and orderly environment	Discipline Policy Infraction Data Suspension Data Expulsion Data Vandalism Data
Clear school mission	Statement of Purpose Written Objective Mastery Requirements
Instructional leadership	Staff Development Policy and System Planning or Curriculum Guidelines Observation Formats
High expectations	Promotion and Retention Policy Groupings Retention Data
Time on task	Homework Policy Allocated Time for Instruction Attendance Data Library Use
Monitoring of student progress	Report Cards Standardized Testing Standardized Test Results
Community relations	Community Relations Policy Open House Participation Newsletters PTO Membership
Staff development	Written Description of Staff Development System or Programs Criteria for Approval of Professional Days

List of Staff Development Offerings for Past Years
Staff Development Committee Minutes
Individual Staff Development and Recertification Plans
Summaries of Assessment of Staff Development Offerings
Evaluation of Impact of Staff Development Offerings

Four Guidelines for Writing a Problem Statement

Suppose that I said to you, "We have a communication problem among our faculty. What would you suggest we do about it?" You would undoubtedly want to ask many questions before hazarding an action suggestion. What is it that is not being communicated? Who feels the need for such communication? Why isn't this communication taking place? Specifically, who would need to be communicating what to whom to improve the problem situation?

A good problem statement includes answers to such questions. It is a brief, specific statement about a problem situation. *A problem situation exists when there is a difference between the way things are and the way someone would like them to be.* The word "problem" tends to suggest a negative meaning to most of us. The definition used here can be applied to situations that we feel negative about. It also applies to situations that are not thought of as negative ones. The situation might be generally good now and an accomplishment of a new objective could make it even better. You might have a station wagon that satisfies your family's basic needs and feel that having a sports car too would make things even better.

Using the definition of a problem situation as one where there is discrepancy between the way things are now and the way someone would like them to be implies that there are almost always "problems" that can be worked on. There are almost always improvement goals in education that we would like to be working toward.

One of the greatest barriers to working constructively toward achieving improvement goals is lack of specificity in stating the problem. *Problem statements are constructed from a description of a problem situation.* Compare the following efforts to state a problem:

> We have a communication problem among our faculty.
>
> We use team teaching in our building. Virtually all of us involved in teams are concerned that we haven't given adequate attention to creating ways to share innovative ideas across teams. We need ways of sharing that don't take up the time of those to whom a particular idea is not relevant, but that share enough detail to give interested people enough information to try it out in their own setting.

The latter statement covers four points that are suggested as *guidelines for writing a good problem statement*. It answers each of these guideline questions:

1. *Who is affected*? Members of the teaching teams are affected. "Virtually all of us involved in teams are concerned . . ."
2. *Who is causing it*? The members of the teaching teams seem to see themselves as mainly responsible. ". . . we haven't given adequate attention . . ."
3. *What kind of a problem is it*? Note that the reason for the problem is a lack of adequate means for doing something. "We need ways of sharing . . ."
4. *What is the goal for improvement*? Specifically, how will things look when the goal has been achieved? In this case, it has been made clear that the goal is not simply

increased communication. The goal is creation of "... ways of sharing that don't take up time of those to whom a particular idea is not relevant, but that share enough detail to give interested people enough information to try it out in their own setting."

The most important guideline for writing a good problem statement is inclusion of a *specific goal for improvement*. Two kinds of confusion can arise when you are attempting to describe the goal for improvement in your statement. One relates to the fact that there may be many possible major and minor goals in the problem situation. It might require many, many pages of writing to describe the entire problem situation. Describing the problem situation is not the same as writing a problem statement. A problem statement answers the four guideline questions in focusing on one, specific improvement goal within the problem situation.

The second kind of confusion arises from needing to be specific in writing the problem statement, while at the same time being ready to change the statement any time new understandings of the problem situation indicate that you should do so. In the early stages of working on a problem, I may have quite erroneous ideas about what kind of problem it is or what the improvement goal should be. By stating specifically what I think is the case, I'll know what to explore. I will be clear about what to change in the statement any time new information shows my initial ideas were wrong. The problem statement should be as specific as possible, but always open to change in the light of new understanding.

Four Guidelines:

Following are some considerations that can help you to be specific as you respond to the four guideline questions while writing a problem statement:

1. *Who is affected*? Consider these possibilities before deciding what you want to say about this: Is it you? Is it one other person? Is it a small group of people? Is it an entire organization? Is it the community or society at large?

2. *Who is causing it*? We frequently speak of problems as though they were caused by circumstances that didn't relate directly to people. This is rarely the case. There is usually some person or persons who could influence things to be different. Consider the same possibilities as above. Is it you? Is it one other person? Is it a small group of people? Is it an entire organization? Is it the community or society at large?

3. *What kind of a problem is it*? There are many ways to classify kinds of problems. The following considerations may prove helpful:

   There is lack of clarity or disagreement about *goals*.

   There is lack of clarity or disagreement about the *means* of achieving goals.

   There is a lack of *skills* needed to carry out a particular means.

   There is a lack of *material resources*.

   The is *inaccurate communication*.

There is *too little* or *too much communication.*

People have a *different understanding* of the same thing.

There is *insufficient time* or *schedules* don't coincide.

Roles are lacking or inappropriate.

Norms are restrictive, unclear or misinterpreted.

There are *conflicts of ideology.*

There is a lack of clarity or a conflict about *decision making*, e.g., power struggles.

Expression of *feelings* is inappropriate or inadequate.

There is conflict related to *individual differences.*

4. *What is the goal for improvement*? Ideally, this should be stated so clearly that anyone reading your statement would know how to determine when the goal is reached. It would tell exactly who would be doing what, where, how and to what extent. Until you know where you are going, it's very difficult to make and carry out plans to get there. The more clear you are about your intended target at any given time, the more likely you will be to recognize that it is an incorrect target should this prove to be the case.

Activity: Writing a Problem Statement

Problem Situation:

Choose a situation that dissatisfies you and you want to do something about.

1. Write here the situation, stating the difference between the way you think things are NOW and the way you think things SHOULD BE. Describe the situation, including enough information so someone unfamiliar with the situation can understand it.

2. Using the PROBLEM SITUATION description as a basis, IDENTIFY the basic component parts for writing a problem statement. Write concrete answers to the following:

   a. Who is affected by the unsatisfactory situation?

   b. Who is causing, or is responsible for, the unsatisfactory situation?

   c. What kind of problem is it?

   d. What is the improvement GOAL? (How will things look when the situation is improved?)

3. Now you are ready to write your problem statement. Write a paragraph that incorporates the answers to the four questions above. Write it so that it will say enough about the situation to communicate to another person.

Guidelines for Goal-Setting

To set effective goals -- goals which will carry you along the road to your definition of success -- consider these characteristics. Is your goal:

1. *Conceivable?* It is understandable? From it, can you identify what the first step or two would be?
2. *Believable?* Few people can believe a goal that they have never seen achieved by someone else.
3. *Achievable?* Is your goal accomplishable with you given strengths and abilities?
4. *Controllable?* If your goal includes the involvement of anyone else, have you tested the waters beforehand?
5. *Measurable?* Is your goal stated so that it can be measured in time and quantity?
6. *Desirable?* Is your goal really something you want to do?
7. *Stated with no alternatives?* Set only one goal at a time. Even though you may set out for one goal, you may stop at any time and drop it for a new one. But when you change, you again state your goal without an alternative.
8. *Growth-facilitating?* Will your goal contribute to yourself, to others, or to society?

Adapted from *Choose Success: How to Set and Achieve All Your Goals* by Dr. Billy B. Sharp with Claire Cox, Hawthorne Books, New York, 1970.

Overview: Effective Designs for Learning

The selection or design of quality professional growth opportunities is a major hurdle for many staff development planners. Short-term, isolated activities on relevant (at best), or irrelevant topics -- unlikely to do anything beyond increase awareness -- continue to be the wearying norm in many school districts. Training continues to be viewed as the primary if not sole vehicle for professional development. It is unfortunate, for the best designed and executed needs assessment means nothing if appropriate professional growth activities do not follow. And "appropriate" frequently means alternatives to traditional training. These learning opportunities can be the "content" and the heart of a staff development system. A collaborative structure alone will not lead to growth. The worth of the system is ultimately determined by the worth of the activities contained within it.

As with any of the planning processes, there's more to program design than may be apparent. It is certainly more than grabbing the first interesting, relevant, or available program or person. Success requires:

- knowledge of alternative solutions or improvement strategies to resolve problems or to meet goals
- knowledge of alternative formats and approaches to professional growth
- knowledge of available resources -- people, programs, materials -- which might be utilized
- matching of resources, formats, and approaches to local needs and the concerns of participants
- skill in selecting consultants
- thoughtful planning and conscious application of what is known about successful staff development

The first phase is *fact finding*. This means finding out as much as possible about a wide array of strategies for professional growth and the resources -- people, programs, materials -- to achieve them. Local, state, and national resources should be considered and ideas generated from persons within and outside of a school. Fact finding also means being knowledgeable about diverse options for professional development. Many alternative vehicles for continued growth are possible and some may be vastly more effective than traditional approaches such as workshops or courses.

During this phase, it is important to keep an open mind regarding possibilities and to delay premature judgment. It's too easy to grab onto the first good idea, but solutions can be improved by looking at alternatives. The more ideas considered the greater the likelihood of good ideas.

The next step is to evaluate the ideas that have been gathered and *narrow down* the possibilities to those that are achievable, desirable, and most likely to be effective: This means examining them in light of school contextual factors such as time, money, staff, and philosophy. A great idea or program might simply not fit the realities of a school. It also means consideration of staff concerns about potential changes. Different kinds of concerns suggest different types of support activities and such knowledge can help in narrowing down the types of activities to provide. For example, teachers unfamiliar with cooperative learning will most likely be concerned about what it looks like, what it will mean for them, and whether or not they can do it. Professional development activities appropriate for these concerns might include review and discussion of descriptive information about the program, observation of the practice in use, and discussion with practicing teachers. Training to follow would emphasize the "nitty-gritty" details of how to do it. In contrast, teachers experienced in cooperative learning are more likely to be concerned about refinement of their practice through collaboration with other teachers. For them, problem-solving sessions with other experienced teachers would be an appropriate professional growth strategy.

Finally, effective program design means making choices among people to provide training or assistance and with them planning the particulars of their work. Selection of the right person means more than getting somebody good. Their skills, knowledge, and style must be matched with teacher needs. A consultant can be highly effective in one school and highly ineffective in another. And it's not always simply a matter of a "bad day."

The final phase in program design is *putting it all together*. By this time, the strategies, people and formats have been determined to achieve the targeted objective. A specific plan for implementation including who does what, when, where, how, etc., now needs to be written. The plan should first be reexamined in light of known successful staff development practices (e.g., Have opportunities been provided for participant involvement? Time to absorb and reflect on new information? Opportunities for practice and feedback? Follow-up support? Peer problem-solving regarding application?) These practices really do make a difference and should be consciously applied in the final design. Consideration should also be given to things such as location and timing of support activities, equipment and supplies, materials, and communication. Careful attention to such "workshop mechanics" can contribute significantly to the success of an activity.

A danger with all of this, of course, is that it is exceedingly rational, logical, and takes time. In practice, programs are rarely developed in such a tidy fashion. Fact finding is often minimal and programs are not always matched to local needs. The availability of a consultant is frequently the primary criterion for selection. We grow increasingly impatient, however, with the outcomes of such actions. Time and resources are too limited to waste on activities that don't match needs and won't make a difference. While we know the difficulties of finding time to research alternatives and thoughtfully match them to reality, we believe in the necessity of trying. This process doesn't have to be belabored, doesn't necessarily mean involvement of the world, and doesn't have to be overly time consuming. But it must be thoughtful.

Case Study

The Loon School District's School Improvement Plan identified increasing student motivation and raising teacher expectations as goals to be worked on during a three to five year period. Recognizing that each school in the district is unique in the staff development activities needed to meet these goals, the decision was made to provide both districtwide activities and to encourage individual schools to create their own plan to address the goals. What follows is a scenario of activities that involved two schools during part of the school year.

The district staff development committee planned a districtwide workshop day for the early fall. The major objective was to increase staff awareness about the goal of increasing student motivation and raising teachers' expectations. The day started out with an explanation by the superintendent about how the goal was determined and how staff development activities might be structured. Two programs dealing with motivation and expectations, Project Eagle and High Expectations, were presented at two "minisessions" so that staff would learn about staff development options. Each school met during the last hour of the day to discuss the information and to think about planning specific strategies.

Oak River Elementary

This school is comprised mostly of teachers with 15 to 25 years of teaching experience. They have seen much in education that has come and gone and often look at innovative practices with the attitude that "this too shall pass." Recognizing that there would be resistance to an immediate training in one of the programs introduced, the building staff development team decided to devote the fall to learning more about student motivation and teacher expectations. They planned three options for staff: 1) peer discussion groups; 2) a speaker series; and 3) visits to schools in a neighboring district where staff had been involved in High Expectations training. Staff were encouraged to select the most suitable option. The building staff development team also began exploring alternative programs that targeted motivation and high expectations. In December, during an early release day for students, the staff met to share their experiences and to consider next steps. A group of six teachers decided to pilot the High Expectations program and agreed to participate in an after-school course scheduled for January and February. Two other alternatives were discussed and agreed to. Action research teams were formed to conduct research into student motivation and teacher expectations in their school setting, and another group decided to continue to read and talk.

Willowbrook Junior High School

Willowbrook's staff is younger and more enthusiastic about change. They are the "omnivores" of the teaching profession. After attending the initial whole-district workshop, they agreed to participate in a two-day training in Project Eagle in

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Developed by Susan Doughty, The Maine Center for Educational Services, Auburn, Maine.

290

November. Their staff development team designed follow-up activities for December and January that included departmental meetings to plan lessons using Eagle techniques, peer partnerships to practice newly learned techniques and get feedback, and biweekly breakfast meetings for trouble-shooting. Staff were also encouraged to develop their own follow-up activities and to notify the team about those activities so that the repertoire of choices might be expanded. One teacher independently decided to keep a journal of his experiences with the program while another initiated an interdistrict network for teachers using the new program. A formal full-day, follow-up workshop for Eagle participants was held in January.

Alternative Approaches to Professional Development: Overview

teacher as researcher

implementing innovative practices

clinical supervision

peer coaching

advising teachers

mentoring beginning teachers

teachers' centers

teacher institutes

networks

partnerships

training of trainers

individually guided professional development

study groups

writing about practice

Alternative Approaches to Professional Growth

Conditions and Considerations

	You might consider these approaches:													
If your situation is:	Teacher as Researcher	Implementing Innovative Practices	Clinical Supervision	Peer Coaching	Teachers' Centers	Advising Teachers	Mentoring Beginning Teachers	Individually Guided Professional Development	Training of Trainers	Teacher Institutes	Networks	Partnerships	Study Groups	Writing about Practice
Curriculum changes in our district require that teachers have an opportunity to expand their knowledge and repertoire of teaching methods in a specific curriculum area.		X							X	X	X			
Teachers in our district are finding it difficult to adapt to changes in our school population.										X	X			
Teachers in our district are experiencing a sense of professional isolation.				X	X	X	X						X	
We have a mature, experienced staff in our district and want to encourage them to continue to grow through opportunities that will both stretch and renew them.	X							X		X	X	X		X
As we hear more and more about effective teaching and schools, we want to assess our skills and our school.		X	X	X		X	X						X	
We are experiencing/expecting an influx of beginning teachers in our district.			X	X			X			X				
We are looking for expanded professional roles and responsibilities for teachers in our district.	X			X	X	X			X					
We are beginning or expecting to involve teachers in revising a major curriculum area in our school.		X											X	

Formats for Professional Development

Workshops led by a fellow teacher, central office specialist, principal, consultant

Formal courses or seminars led by fellow teachers, central office specialist, principal, consultant

> Methods in workshops, formal courses, and seminars can include lectures, presentations, demonstrations, panel discussions, exhibitions, seminars, work groups, micro-teaching labs, field trips, observations, simulations, role playing experiences, learning packets, modules, selected readings, case studies, independent contracts, visitations, professional writing, videotaped feedback, films

Residential course, retreat, or institute

Attendance at a professional conference/convention

Travel

Leave of absence/sabbatical

Apprenticeship or internship in another organization (e.g., business or industry)

Visits to other schools on release time

Receiving visits from teachers from other schools

Receiving informal on-the-job advice and assistance

Being evaluated formally with a view to the improvement of professional performance

Giving informal on-the-job advice and assistance

Participating in formal or informal peer group meetings to share ideas, problems, and information

Exercising leadership in staff development activities

Planning/developing new curricula

Committee work related to staff development

Working in a teachers' center

Individual research and planning designed to improve classroom instruction

Self evaluation for professional growth purposes

Resources for Solutions: An Information User's Checklist*

LOCAL RESOURCES:

If often pays dividends to start your search at home. You may be surprised by what you find. In the process you can build support for what you are doing and your local staff (especially librarians) will learn to be on the look-out for the kind of resources you need to support staff development and school improvement.

[ ] Check your school or local public library to find:

- ☐ Local and state organizations which can provide assistance
- ☐ Articles in professional publications
  - ☐ National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
  - ☐ National Council of Teachers of English
  - ☐ National Science Teachers Association
  - ☐ *Journal of Staff Development*
  - ☐ *Phi Delta Kappan*
  - ☐ *Educational Leadership*
  - ☐ *Language Arts*
  - ☐ *The Reading Teacher*
  - ☐ *Classroom Computer News*
  - ☐ *Learning*
  - ☐ *The Instructor*
  - ☐ *NASSP Bulletin*
  - ☐ *NAESP Bulletin*
- ☐ Information on local and instate people with particular skills
- ☐ Information on local and statewide material resources

[ ] Talk with the superintendent and principals. Fliers and catalogues often come to them. They attend conventions or meetings where they learn about resources.

[ ] Ask faculty members to respond to a questionnaire which includes questions on resource people. Make it a regular part of needs assessment and evaluation.

[ ] Put a notice on the faculty room bulletin board asking for ideas.

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*Note: This was developed for use in Maine but can easily be adapted to match resources in other locations.

[ ] Brainstorm at faculty meetings. Ask for suggestions or give names you already know and ask for feedback and additional names.

[ ] Approach local agencies and professional organizations who provide speakers or who offer workshops for their own employees or community groups. Find out what services they can offer you.

[ ] Encourage your own staff to serve as resources. Ask a teacher or a team of teachers to present a workshop together. Set a climate of gracious acknowledgement of the teachers' skills: newspaper pictures; letters to school committee; mention at faculty meetings; bulletin board in the staff room. Offer increment credit incentives for teaching a workshop (twice what the participants receive) or an honorarium.

REGIONAL RESOURCES:

[ ] Ask colleagues, friends, people from other school systems for suggestions.

[ ] Set up a resource sharing network with other staff development teams in your area. This network can be organized by any one system or through some type of regional organization such as a collaborative or consortium. Talk with your staff about taking on some type of coordinating role and then work with other teams to provide resources. Be sure to support the new system by using it.

[ ] Look for regional organizations in human services, library information, health care or promotion, cultural coordination, environmental information, extension services, or commercial or industrial coordinating groups. Locate a contact person in each of these organizations whom you can reach whenever you are looking for resources. While you are at it, ask each of them to suggest one other organization you should contact.

[ ] Ask college representatives. Contact both administrators and individuals in appropriate departments (including those outside the School of Education). Don't forget the smaller, undergraduate colleges which don't offer inservice courses for teachers, but which have faculty trained in a variety of related disciplines.

STATE RESOURCES:

[ ] Call the Information Exchange and the Maine Resource Bank for information on Maine-based resources, and Maine resource providers.

[ ] Try specific divisions or persons within the Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services to get information and assistance in curriculum, staff development, or planning and evaluation assistance. (CSPD -- Comprehensive System of Personnel Development; ISG -- Instructional Support Group; Divisions of Special Education, Curriculum, Drug and Alcohol Education)

[ ] Check with the Maine Center for Educational Services to identify and learn about National Diffusion Network and other validated programs contributing to school improvement, as well as consultants available in Maine.

[ ] Contact the Maine Computer Consortium at the Center for information on hardware, software, and staff development training related to computers.

[ ] Contact persons or programs at college or the Professional Development Centers at the University of Maine campuses.

- ☐ Professional Development Center -- University of Southern Maine
- ☐ Penquis -- University of Maine at Orono
- ☐ Professional Development Center -- University of Maine at Farmington
- ☐ Professional Development Center -- University of Maine at Presque Island
- ☐ The Center for Professional Development, Research and Evaluation
- ☐ Center for Research and Advanced Study, Portland

[ ] Check with statewide professional organizations. (Contact information available from the *Information Exchange*.)

- ☐ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
- ☐ Maine Teachers Association
- ☐ Elementary and Secondary Principals Associations
- ☐ Maine Coalition of Educational Leaders
- ☐ Maine School Boards Association
- ☐ Maine Council of Teachers of English
- ☐ Maine Science Teachers Association
- ☐ Maine Educational Media Association
- ☐ Others . . .

NATIONAL RESOURCES:

[ ] Call the *Information Exchange* for a free search of national computer databases such as ERIC, ECER, etc. (1-800-322-8899).

[ ] Check with the Northeast Regional Laboratory for referrals to sources of information, planning assistance, or information regarding conferences.

[ ] Contact the *Information Exchange* for information on the specialized research of the regional education laboratories, research centers, and information exchanges funded by the federal government.

[ ] Contact the national offices of professional educational organizations.

Problem-Solving Capsule

Each person will have one cycle as "helpee" and two cycles as "helper."

Helpee describes back-home staff development problem and goal. (5 minutes)	Helpee describes staff development problem and goal; helpers listen.
⇓	
Helpers ask clarifying questions about described situation and goal. (5 minutes)	Helpers ask "what" types of questions of helpee.
⇓	
Helpee writes description of situation and goal statement on guidesheet. - - - - - - - - - - - - Helpers reflect on strategies and alternative solutions. (5 minutes)	Silent time is reserved for helpee to capture the existing situation and the working goal. Concurrent silent time is used by each helper to jot down ideas, strategies, and alternative solutions to the problem. (No sharing at this time.)
⇓	
Helpers brainstorm alternative solutions. (5 minutes)	During this period, helpers report to the helpee various ideas and alternatives. Helpee records ideas. (Keep to a brainstorming format . . . no questions or discussions! "Yeah buts" not allowed.)
⇓	
Helpee clarifies alternatives. (5 minutes)	The helpee now goes through the list of brainstormed alternatives and asks for clarification of any ideas of specific interest. The helper can then elaborate on suggestions made.
⇓	
Helpee reflects on alternatives and identifies some next steps. (5 minutes)	This is quiet time reserved for the helpee to reflect on the ideas, strategies, and solutions suggested and to identify possible courses of action, including a concrete "first step." These are recorded on the guidesheet.

Nominal Group Process

A Group Interview

The *nominal group process* is a technique used in restricted size groups (ideal size should range from five to eight depending upon the group) to insure feedback from all members. The process is simple and should be followed with as few alterations as possible. The question posed to the group can be virtually anything. It can be broad, such as, "What are the greatest strengths and problems in your school?" or more focused, such as, "What problems and successes are you having as you implement the new science curriculum?" For use at this point in staff development system design, when the focus is fact finding, the question might be: "What are the best resources to meet our objective?" or "What are the five best strategies to resolve our professional development goal?"

Step 1: SILENT GENERATION OF IDEAS	Allow the group four to eight minutes to silently respond to the question posed. Limit the number of responses. There should be no discussion during this step.
Step 2: RECORDING	Choose a recorder and, in round robin fashion, each group member shares responses. The recorder writes down each response, even if similar or identical.
Step 3: CLARIFICATION	Once all responses are recorded, the next step is to clarify or elaborate on any responses so that they are understood by all. Do in round robin fashion. Then, collapse similar statements into one statement agreed upon by all members of the group. All statements need not be collapsed.
Step 4: PRIORITIZING	Using the collapsed list, the next step is to set priorities. One way to accomplish this is to have each group member assign a number to each statement, 1 being the most important. Tally the score for each statement and list in order, the statement with the lowest score being first.

(Refer to Chapter 4, Activity 4 for more information on the nominal group process and methods to prioritize.)

Screening Promising Practices for Adoption

YOU ARE THE BUYER. You are the potential selector, adopter, or user of promising practices for classroom use by students, for professional development by teachers, or for changes in service delivery systems. THE SELLER is the developer and/or purveyor of a promising practice. The seller is responsible for presenting wares in terms that will make it possible for you to decide whether they will be useful, practical, and successful for YOU. AS THE BUYER, you are responsible for: (a) knowing what you need programmatically, (b) knowing yourself -- your local conditions, contexts, and resources, and (c) asking structural questions whose answers will tell you whether a promising practice fits.

WHEN YOU USE THIS SCREENING SHEET, you are shopping to fill an identified programmatic need. (For example, you know the curriculum area and target population to be served by the practice you are seeking.) The Screening Sheet lists structural and contextual questions that you should ask about a promising practice and about yourself, and it suggests a scale for rating the relative match between the practice and yourself.

SCREENING SHEET

CLAIMS	What goals and objectives is the practice designed to achieve?	What goals and objectives am I seeking to fulfill?	1 2 3 4 5 No Match Good Match

Notes:______________________________________

____

____

EFFECTIVENESS	What evidence proves that the practice is successful in achieving what it claims?	How stringently should effectiveness be demonstrated by practices in this domain? IS THE EVIDENCE CONVINCING?	1 2 3 4 5 No Evidence Convincing Evidence

Notes:______________________________________

____

____

HISTORY OF USE	In what administrative, geographical, and educational settings has the practice been used?	What are the definitive qualities of my administrative, geographical, and educational setting?	1 2 3 4 5 Non-Matching History Matching History

Notes:______________________________________

____

____

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR REPLICATIONS	Exactly what must the adopter do to achieve success?	What am I willing and able to do to replicate a practice?	1 2 3 4 5 No Standards Acceptable Standards
	Is the practice completely prescribed, or does it permit adjustments and additions by the adopter?	Am I seeking a flexible or prescribed program to meet this need?	
	Does anything have to be added at the adopter site?	What am I willing and able to add to the practice I adopt?	

Notes:______________________________________

____

____

SCREENING SHEET (continued)

COMPATIBILITY	How much change will this practice create in parallel systems and programs?	How much overall change do I seek?	1 2 3 4 5 Incompatible Compatible
		How far does this practice depart from my established policy and practice?	
	What background or level of sophistication does the practice demand of users or participants?	What is the background and level of sophistication of my intended users and participants?	

Notes:____

ASSISTANCE WITH IMPLEMENTATION	How is this practice conveyed to new users?	What kinds of training or assistance will I need to implement a new practice?	1 2 3 4 5 Inadequate Assistance Adequate Assistance
	What follow-up and problem-solving assistance is given?	Will I need external follow-up and problem-solving from the developer?	

Notes:____

COSTS	What is the purchase price of adoption and training?	What budget has been estimated for initiating a new practice?	1 2 3 4 5 High Cost Low Cost
	What is the cost of implementing and maintaining the practice?	What budget has been estimated for implementing and maintaining a new practice?	
	What additional resources does the practice require in money, personnel, facilities, equipment, and materials?	What additional resources are available for initiating and implementing a new practice?	
	What learning materials or other materials are required? Where do they come from? How much do they cost? Are they reusable or reproducible?	What budget has been estimated for purchasing, supplementing, and reproducing materials?	
PAYOFF	How rapidly does the practice achieve its goals?	What is my timeline for producing change?	1 2 3 4 5 Low Payoff High Payoff
	How many individuals can participate simultaneously?	What is the total number of individuals intended to participate in this practice?	
	Does the package include evaluation procedures for measuring success?	What are my criteria for judging the success of my replication of this practice?	

Notes on cost-effectiveness:____

Developed by Judy Smith Davis for Counterpoint, a newsletter of Disseminaction.

Solution Review Worksheet

Professional Development Goal:	
List the ideas/solutions which: 1. Are the most desirable. (Is it something you really want to do?)	
2. Are the most achievable. (Considering money, staff, requirements, time, which have the fewest constraints?)	
3. Are most likely to achieve the desired objective. (Which are likely to really make a difference?)	
4. Will solicit the greatest support from: a. teachers b. administration c. community	
5. Are most congruent with the policies, philosophy and goals of the school or district.	
Conclusions:	

Solution Selection Worksheet

Professional Development Goal:		
Solutions:		
Questions	Response	Notes
1. Will the solution meet the identified professional development goal?	Yes No	
2. Does the solution fit district policy and philosophy?	Yes No	
3. Are we able to get the level of support needed for implementation? From: a. district administrators b. school administration c. teachers d. community	Yes No	
4. Are there special staff requirements for the solution? Can they be met?	Yes No	
5. Are there money requirements for the solution? Can they be met?	Yes No	
6. Are the special space requirements for the solution available? Can they be met?	Yes No	
7. Are there special time demands for the solution? Can they be met?	Yes No	

Stages of Concern
Typical Expressions of Concern About an Innovation

	STAGES OF CONCERN	EXPRESSIONS OF CONCERN
IMPACT	6. REFOCUSING	I have some ideas about something that would work even better.
	5. COLLABORATION	How can I relate what I am doing to what others are doing?
	4. CONSEQUENCE	How is my use affecting kids? How can I refine it to have more impact?
TASK	3. MANAGEMENT	I seem to be spending all my time getting materials ready.
SELF	2. PERSONAL	How will using it affect me?
	1. INFORMATIONAL	I would like to know more about it.
	0. AWARENESS	I am not concerned about it.

Adapted from: Shirley M. Hord, William L. Rutherford, Leslie Huling-Austin, and Gene E. Hall. *Taking Charge of Change*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD and Austin, TX: SEDL, 1987.

Concerns About an Innovation

1. Think about a recent interaction with a teacher (or other "client") that was related to an innovation he or she is using or considering using in the future. Describe some of his or her concerns about the innovation or its use:

2. When you think about your role in facilitating change, what are you concerned about?

Developed by the CBAM Project, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin.

Examples of Stages of Concern Paragraphs

Example 1

When I think about how this innovation may influence how others see me as a professional I wonder whether I want to become involved in it. I might have very little to say about how the innovation is implemented or who I would work with. I'm just not sure how it would fit in with the way I enjoy doing things, nor do I know how I'd be expected to change if we really get involved with this innovation.

Example 2

Some of the students don't seem to be catching on to this new individualized approach. They seem to need more monitoring, closer supervision, and less distractions. I wonder if it might help for my aide to concentrate more on them as a group.

Example 3

Almost every night I wonder if I'll be able to locate and organize the material I will be using the next day. I can't yet prevent surprises that cause a lot of wasted time. I am not yet able to anticipate what things I will need to requisition for next week. I feel inefficient when I think about my use of the innovation.

Adapted from: Beulah W. Newlove and Gene E. Hall. A Manual for Assessing Open-Ended Statements of Concern About an Innovation. Austin, TX: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin, 1976.

Selecting and Using Consultants/Resource People Effectively

Steps in Selecting a Good Consultant:

1. Determine the nature and general scope of the project to be undertaken before contacting prospective consultants.
2. Review the qualifications and experience of various consultants in relation to the project.
3. Talk with prospective consultants about the project and their approach to it; ask consultants to submit proposals.
4. Check references of those consultants being seriously considered.
5. Study the proposal in terms of the consultant's understanding of the problem, approach, probable benefits, costs, as well as his/her particular experience and ability.

Tasks to Do with the Consultant:

1. Identify and clarify the need for change.
2. Explore your own target group's readiness for change as well as the capability, credibility, and trustworthiness of the consultant.
3. Explore the potential of working together.
4. Determine outcomes.
5. Determine the consultant's role (e.g., as collaborator in problem solving, fact finder, trainer, technical specialist, data collector, reflector).
6. Decide who needs to do what.
7. Establish a time frame.

Guidelines for Assessing the Consultant's Performance:

1. Does the consultant form sound interpersonal relationships with people?
   A productive consulting relationship is based on trust between consultant and client or target audience. An effective consultant allows time for trust to develop and fosters its development by exploring feelings, attitudes, and expectations of the client in addition to focusing on the agreed-upon task.
2. Does the consultant build client independence?
   A responsible and ethical consultant recognizes and fosters the need for people to develop their own confidence and capabilities. Effective consultants "work themselves out of a job" rather than making their clients dependent on them or their methods.

From: National Staff Development Council Effective Practices Workshop.

307

3. Does the consultant face problems directly?

   An effective consultant understands that most people will feel some degree of discomfort when faced with any organizational change. He or she deals directly with clients' negative feelings as a normal part of the change process and is not upset with expressions of anger, anxiety, or resistance. Effective consultants do not seek to ignore, cover-up, or gloss over conflicts with clients.

4. Does the consultant keep the confidences of clients?

   Professional consultants keep confidential all dealings with clients. They do not attempt to demonstrate expertise and experience by discussing individuals with whom they have worked.

5. Is the consultant explicit about financial arrangements?

   A professional consultant describes exactly what services he or she will perform for what fees, so that clients receive no unexpected bills.

6. Does the consultant describe the skills he or she possesses related to your problem or goal?

   Effective consultants state exactly what they can do and what they cannot. Be wary of consultants who imply expansive knowledge and experience; they may be venturing far beyond the limits of their actual skills and abilities.

7. Does the consultant express willingness to have his or her services evaluated?

   A good consultant seeks feedback, both to improve his or her own performance and to model self-evaluation for clients.

A Checklist for Planning a Staff Development Program

I. Involve and inform relevant school and community members throughout the planning and implementation of staff development program/activities.

II. Identify information and/or skills to be acquired and determine specific learning objectives.

III. Identify target groups.

  A. Decide who should be involved.

  B. Decide who should *not* be involved.

IV. Identify time and funds available.

V. Identify available programs, practices, and other material resources (local, state, national) for information related to relevant improvement strategies.

VI. Identify knowledgeable and skilled people to provide training or assistance.

VII. Match available resources with your needs (and resources) and select those most appropriate.

VIII. Determine appropriate format and learning strategies for the program.

  A. Generate list of possible formats.

  B. Consider the nature and complexity of the learning objectives.

  C. Consider concerns and learning styles of target audience.

  D. Use research on effective staff development practices as guidelines for design of program.

   1. Are administrators actively involved as participants as well as planners?

   2. Is the program supported at the outset by building and district administrators?

   3. Do incentives for participation emphasize intrinsic professional rewards? Are disincentives such as inconvenient times and locations avoided?

   4. Are sufficient time and funds allocated?

   5. Is the program design consistent with fundamental principles of good teaching and learning?

   a. Is the program spaced over time?

   b. Do the activities focus on job-related tasks the participants consider real and important?

c. Are opportunities for peer discussion, observation, and mutual assistance provided and encouraged?

d. Does the program include opportunities for demonstration, practice, feedback, and on-site follow-up to ensure real growth?

e. Is testing and trying out ideas encouraged?

f. Does the program include both common and individualized activities for the participants?

g. Are receptive and active roles for participants included?

h. Are concrete experiences, assignments, materials used early?

i. Are materials that are relevant to participant professional responsibilities provided?

j. Are the program objectives and roles of the participants clear to all?

k. Are regular and frequent meetings or opportunities to discuss application of new practices planned?

l. If emphasizing affective or performance objectives, does the program involve less than 30 people?

m. Is a combination of inhouse and outside trainers with appropriate skills used?

6. Select appropriate format and design program/activities.

IX. Negotiate specific plan with identified trainer(s)/resource persons.

A. Discuss desired objectives, outcomes, roles, nature of participants, appropriate format, do's and don'ts, effective staff development practices. (Don't assume anything!)

B. *Don't discard your role as planner once a consultant has been identified!*

X. Outline a specific implementation plan (who, what, where, when).

A. Consider basic workshop mechanics.

B. Include a contingency plan.

XI. Carry out the program.

A. Throughout program implementation, document and evaluate what works and what doesn't.

B. Modify the program as appropriate.

XII. Assess the impact of the program over time, on staff as well as students. Reassess the problem/need.

School Improvement Plan

School Team:____________________

Problem Statement and Improvement Objectives:

Objectives	Improvement Strategy/ Steps to Be Taken	Resources Needed	Time Line	Cost	Methods to Measure/Judge Progress/Effectiveness	Documentation	Person Responsible

A Sketch of Successful Staff Development Practices

Successful practice	What are you doing about it?
1. A variety of professional growth options are provided for individuals as well as groups with similar needs.	
2. Staff development activities are building-based.	
3. Incentives for participation emphasize intrinsic rewards.	
4. Inconvenient times and locations are avoided.	
5. Sufficient time and funds are allocated.	
6. Instructional practices or curricula that are carefully developed and determined to be effective are used.	
7. A context of acceptance is created by: a) involving teachers in decision making b) providing logistical and psychological administrative support	
8. A critical mass of participants is involved.	
9. Program objectives and the roles of administrators and teachers are clear.	

A Sketch of Successful Staff Development Practices (pg. 2 of 2)

Successful practice	What are you doing about it?
10. Research and rationale for new techniques are presented and critical discussion is encouraged.	
11. Training is conducted by credible people.	
12. Multiple training sessions are conducted, over time.	
13. Workship activities include presentation, demonstration, practice, and feedback.	
14. Opportunities for small group discussion on applicationof new practices, sharing of ideas and concerns are provided during training sessions.	
15. Between sessions, teachers are encouraged to visit each others' classrooms and provide peer coaching.	
16. Regular meetings or opportunities for discussion of practical problems related to the programs occur frequently.	
17. Assistance and support are provided by an array of people including teachers, principals, district staff, and external trainers and linkers.	
18. Attention is paid to factors contributing to institutionalization.	

Pre-Implementation Checklist
School Improvement Leadership Projects: A Way of Doing Business

Yes	No		Have You . . .
___	___	1.	placed on paper, using the greatest possible precision of language, a statement which describes your expectations of the project?
___	___	2.	made a list of project tasks and placed them on a timeline?
___	___	3.	generated short-term objectives or interim tasks, products, or events?
___	___	4.	created a management structure and delineated the responsibilities of leadership persons?
___	___	5.	listed resources which will be needed, determined the sources, located suppliers, and indicated on the timeline when these resources will be needed?
___	___	6.	made a list of the roles of project participants and written job descriptions for those roles?
___	___	7.	informed all project participants of your expectations?
___	___	8.	tapped into the local media for publicity about the project?
___	___	9.	generated a communications network between and among project groups?
___	___	10.	informed the community of what to expect from the project?
___	___	11.	determined what staff training might be needed, identified consultant assistance, specified a time for training, and notified participants of these details?
___	___	12.	located a reliable first-generation adopter for an exchange of ideas?
___	___	13.	made a list of the facilitating forces for this project and of the forces which might oppose it?
___	___	14.	made sure that the superintendent understands the project, its implications and potential for disrupting the status quo?
___	___	15.	involved all affected groups in the decision-making process?
___	___	16.	outlined a project budget?
___	___	17.	developed a formative and a summative evaluation plan?
___	___	18.	taken steps to generate enthusiasm for the project?

From: Project Selection Kit, Georgia Research and Development Utilization Project. Reprinted by permission of the Georgia State Department of Education.

Describing the Program
Worksheet

WHO (Sponsors, Trainers, Leaders, Facilitators, etc.)	WHAT (Training activities, meetings, etc.)	WITH WHOM (Participants, Trainees, Discussants, etc.)

Sample Program Description from Thinking Skills Training Project

Worksheet

WHO (Sponsors, Trainers, Leaders, Facilitators, etc.)	WHAT (Training activities, meetings, etc.)	WITH WHOM (Participants, Trainees, Discussants, etc.)
Thinking Skills Project Developers	Provided training, written materials, and plans to teach the decision-making skill	Teachers (trainers) Principal
Principal	Led support/discussion group on the process of using the training and materials	Teachers Principal

A Worksheet for Information Collection

Evaluation Question	Information Sources	Collection Method	Responsibility	Timeline

Identifying Expected Outcomes and Measurement Techniques

Worksheet

Outcomes	Measurement/Documentation Procedures

Identifying Audiences, Purposes, Issues, and Concerns

Worksheet

Audience	Concerns/Interests

Identifying Audiences, Purposes, Issues, and Concerns

Worksheet

The Thinking Skills Project

Audience	Concerns/Interests
Thinking Skills Project Producers	1. Did teachers use the materials as intended? 2. How did the materials work? Feedback on sequence and content.
Principal	1. What changes (impact) occurred for teachers and students? Early indicators of learning? 2. How did the process work? 3. How were collegial interactions effected? 4. What should we do for follow-up/continuation?
Teachers	1. How am I doing? 2. How did the process work? How can I adapt it so that it works best for me? 3. What changes (impact) occurred for the kids? What did they learn?

Sample Interview Protocol to Determine Issues And Concerns of Stakeholding Audiences

1. Begin by asking respondent to talk about his or herself.

   SAMPLE QUESTIONS:

   How do you happen to be filling the role of..........?

   What is a typical day like for you in your role of........?

2. Help respondent orient his or her mind with respect to the program; warm-up his or her memory regarding the specifics of the program being evaluated. These questions will likely yield **descriptors**.

   SAMPLE QUESTIONS:

   Please describe the program to me, as if I knew nothing about it.

   Probe for:

   - ☐ How it is used.
   - ☐ Conditions surrounding its use/implementation.
   - ☐ How it operates.
   - ☐ Who is involved.
   - ☐ Who receives the benefits or services.

3. Once you have built a common understanding of the inner workings of the program from the respondent's point of view, now it's time to probe for the respondent's **concerns and issues**.

   SAMPLE QUESTIONS:

   What good is likely to come of it?

   (You may have to ask first about claims, *i.e.*, what do people say about the program regarding its goals and intentions, its relative success or failure? It is appropriate to bring up claims if the respondent does not mention them spontaneously. As claims are mentioned, probe for details.)

   Do you agree with the claims made for it?

   Do you see any problems with this new program?

   What bad effect might it have?

4. As your knowledge grows and themes emerge, add specific questions which explore those themes. Reserve such questions until the respondent has already volunteered whatever he or she can, and when such specific questions can be

asked without biasing the voluntary report he or she gives. (Consider saving these until after your first summary.)

5. Summarize what respondent has said and ask for verification.

   SAMPLE QUESTIONS (AFTER SUMMARY):

   Is that what you intended to tell me?

   Have I misunderstood in some way?

   Are there other things you would like to add?

6. Ask for recommendations for other audiences and respondents.

   SAMPLE QUESTIONS:

   Who can tell me more about these problems?

   Who would take a very different view than you have about what we have talked about?

   Are there persons who have some extended knowledge of these matters?

Teacher Interview from the Thinking Skills Project: An Example of Unitizing

SAMPLE INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER #4

1. IMPLEMENTATION?

   1.1 In the beginning I followed the process strictly.

   1.2 After more practice, I experimented with small groups as an enrichment activity... tended to experiment a little after we finished each section.

   1.3 Went less by the script, more like I normally do, as I moved on to later lessons. It became more natural.

   1.4 Scripts that came later (lesson 6-7 and on) would have been more helpful in the beginning (where there was little or no script or script was embedded in general directions). By the time it was provided, I didn't need it. But I really did need it in the beginning because I wasn't confident yet.

2. CHANGES IN KIDS?

   2.1 Saw kids noticing decision points.

   2.2 When we pro and con'd they never chose the obvious options. Before they always did.

   2.3 They do a lot more connecting, even without prompting. At this point they don't always realize they're connecting.

3. CHANGES IN TEACHING?

   3.1 I'm always on the lookout for ways to use it; ways/places to infuse decision making into the curriculum.

   3.2 I'm more aware of connecting back throughout everything I do, and I am more focused on it.

   3.3 I catch them thinking more often.

   3.4 I lead them into thinking more often.

   3.5 I talk about thinking more often.

   3.6 I spent time with Ann talking about where to fit it into the curriculum, agreeing on where to infuse it.

   3.7 There was lots of talk about the process among all my colleagues.

4. CONCERNS WITH THE PROGRAM?

   4.1 There was too much practice of the same type in some spots.

4.2 Yet I believe some kids need more practice, thus for some that repetitive practice was necessary.

4.3 We teachers need to be free to go on when we think the kids are ready to go on.

4.4 The materials did not allow for individualization/teacher judgment regarding when to move on with which kids.

4.5 Regarding the continuous resurfacing of Jack in the Beanstalk... I think it was good because it avoided the kids becoming anxious about the content. They could focus on the process. It felt easy to them because they felt familiar with it. Some people thought it was boring when it kept coming up. The kids would react "Oh no, not this again!" at first, but I assured them we would do something different with it. They settled in and found it easy.

4.6 I don't feel that the students are there with connecting back. Some are, some aren't. We need to keep working on it. I don't know why it's so hard for them. It seems like they should be more able to do it than they are.

4.7 Estimate 100% can connect back with prompting.

4.8 Estimate 65% can connect back without prompting.

4.9 I have begun asking about connect back and thinking about thinking on paper. That's how I know who does and who does not get it.

4.10 I conference with those who do not get it (connect back).

4.11 Infusion was most difficult with science. May be able to do more with animal units and pollution.

4.12 Infusion was easy with social studies.

4.13 Infusion with reading can be easy sometimes, depending on the nature of the story we are reading.

4.14 I want to do a classroom decision where we'll all have to live by the decision we have made.

5. HOW ARE YOU CONTINUING THE WORK?

5.1 I tell students that they won't use the whole strategy all the time, but will choose and use bit and pieces of the strategy... i.e., generating options, pros and cons, etc., e.g., with social problems.

6. FOLLOW-UP?

6.1 Continue meeting about our processes.

6.2 Try some pairing up and checking on our use.

6.3 Go on to more types, i.e., pick up on the function strategy.

6.4 Get the word out to the middle school, encourage them to use it.

Thinking Skills Project Interviews:
An Example of Content Analysis

2. CHANGES IN STUDENTS

  2.1 SIGNS OF GROWTH

    2.1.1 RECOGNIZING DECISION POINTS

2.1.1.1 (#1) Recently we were doing a lesson which involved a discussion about curiosity. We read a story which presented a situation of a boy in front of a wall, and wondering about what was on the other side. Jared said, "Mrs. Pigeon, what a great decision point!" I couldn't have programmed it better! So we stopped right there in the discussion and did the Decision Making process.

2.1.1.2 (#1) Kids are able to recognize decision points in their personal lives. Now they know there's more than just black and white options.

2.1.1.3 (#1) Kids are much more comfortable finding and dealing with decision points.

2.1.1.4 (#2) They are more aware of when there is a decision, there is more than either/or.

2.1.1.5 (#4) Saw kids noticing decision points.

2.1.1.6 (#3) They bring up decision points when they see them. They can recognize decision points.

    2.1.2 OPTIONS

2.1.2.1 (#1) At the beginning their creative options were extreme... too creative. Now they are much more realistic.

2.1.2.2 (#5) Another subgroup gave silly answers. Later they recognized their silliness. They gave more appropriate answers as time went on.

2.1.2.3 (#5) Their options improved.

2.1.2.4 (#4) When we pro and con'd they never chose the obvious options. Before they always did.

  2.2 THE PRE/POST TEST

2.2.1 (#3) The assessment process (pre and post test) is VERY different from the teaching and performing process. The teaching and performance is all oral and within a group, the testing is written and individual.

2.2.2 (#1) For 3rd grade level, the pretest was too difficult... frustrating. Language was difficult. Boston Tea Party was hard for them to relate to.

2.3 STRUGGLES

2.3.1 (#5) Some had strange reactions. Some wanted to stay on the edge and withdraw from the activity and not contribute (those who often contributed other times).

2.3.2 (#5) Sometimes they found it difficult to do pro and con.

2.3.3 (#5) Another subgroup monopolized the discussion.

2.3.4 (#3) I haven't seen the whole process transferred spontaneously.

2.4 CONNECT BACK/THINK ABOUT THINKING

2.4.1 (#1) At first connect back resulted in blank looks. With more practice, it became easier for them to connect back.

2.4.2 (#1) I haven't caught them connecting back on their own. They still need prompting.

2.4.3 (#2) Don't see much carry over. When they have to think, they really need prompting.

2.4.4 (#4) They do a lot more connecting, even without prompting. At this point they don't always realize they're connecting.

2.4.5 (#4) I don't feel that the students are there with connecting back. Some are, some aren't. We need to keep working on it. I don't know why it's so hard for them. It seems like they should be more able to do it than they are.

2.4.6 (#4) Estimate 100% can connect back with prompting.

2.4.7 (#4) Estimate 65% can connect back without prompting.

2.4.8 (#3) Connecting back and thinking about thinking are the hardest.

3. TEACHER CHANGES

3.1 ADDED TO MY REPERTOIRE

3.1.1 (#5) I use little parts of the process, e.g., with classroom behavior.

3.1.2 (#1) Gave me other options for discussion of literature. Added another avenue for exploration and discussion.

3.1.3 (#2) It lifted me out of a rut. I could relate to it. It looked like it would really work, even before I tried it (vs. Math Their Way). Was easy to take off and do.

3.1.4 (#3) I have always used this kind of decision making model for myself.

3.1.5 (#3) As a general approach to thinking, it was more of a confirmation of what I already knew.

3.2 COLLEGIAL INTERACTION

3.2.1 (#1) Interaction with colleagues was always high. This program tied grades 3-5 together a little more as we shared frustrations and accomplishments.

3.2.2 (#4) I spent time with Ann talking about where to fit it into the curriculum, agreeing on where to infuse it.

3.2.3 (#4) There was lots of talk about the process among all my colleagues.

3.3 GREATER SENSITIVITY TO THINKING PROCESSES

3.3.1 (#2) I tend to go more into depth on thinking and reasoning now. I talk over the concepts more and pursue the subject more in depth.

3.3.2 (#2) I ask more, "Why did you think that way" questions (metacognition).

3.3.3 (#4) I'm always on the lookout for ways to use it; ways/places to infuse decision making into the curriculum.

3.3.4 (#4) I'm more aware of connecting back throughout everything I do, and I am more focused on it.

3.3.5 (#4) I catch them thinking more often.

3.3.6 (#4) I lead them into thinking more often.

3.3.7 (#4) I talk about thinking more often

3.3.8 (#3) I have become more aware of decision points in the curriculum.

3.4 (#3) The process hasn't been truly magnetic... just nice. It was interesting but not spectacular. Spectacular would be that people truly got highly excited and would want to share. That's pretty hard to achieve in multiple grades with many different ideas.

Sample Survey

Effective Schools Survey, May 1988

I. As a result of the Effective Schools Program activities, what differences do you see in the attitudes, behavior, and performance of students?

Agree/Disagree (A or D)

1. ___ My students are buying more paperback books in the book sales.
2. ___ My students are feeling better about themselves.
3. ___ My students are less frustrated with reading activities.
4. ___ My students are reading more books.

II. As a result of the Effective Schools Program activities, what differences do you see in the attitudes, behavior, and performance of teachers?

Agree/Disagree (A or D)

1. ___ Teachers are trying out new ways to teach reading.
2. ___ Teachers are talking more to each other about the teaching of reading.
3. ___ Teachers are sharing ideas about how to "turn kids on to reading."
4. ___ Teachers feel that there is more focus on the teaching of reading.
5. ___ Teachers feel that there is more team work regarding the teaching of reading.
6. ___ Teachers are more aware of community resources.
7. ___ Teachers are making greater use of community resources.

III. As a result of the Effective Schools Program activities, what differences do you see in the attitudes, behavior, and performance of parents and other community members?

Agree/Disagree (A or D)

1. ___ There are more parent volunteers in my school.
2. ___ The PTA is becoming more active.
3. ___ More parents are participating in the PTA.
4. ___ Parents know more about what goes on in school.
5. ___ Parents know more about ways to help their kids at home.
6. ___ PTA members are more enthusiastic about their participation.

Example of a Summary Report[13]

EVALUATION SUMMARY: THINKING SKILLS PROJECT

March 1989

IMPLEMENTATION:

1. Lessons were carried out as prescribed.
2. Difficulty was experienced moving the whole class through the subskills at the same pace. Too much repetition (practice) in the middle lessons. Some students needed less practice than the sequence provided, while some needed more. Need to work on ways to probe mastery of subskills.
3. Most teachers used small groups toward the end.
4. Infusion was difficult, since it was hard to find decision points naturally occurring within the pre-determined curriculum. To keep pace with the lessons, "extra" decision points had to be created. This was easiest in social studies and reading.

IMPACT FOR STUDENTS:

1. Most, if not all students learned to recognize decision points.
2. Most, if not all students learned to develop reasonable (as opposed to silly) creative options and seldom chose the obvious option.
3. Most students learned to develop pro and con lists.
4. Most, if not all students (and teachers) had trouble with "connecting back" and "thinking about thinking." Some students were spontaneously "connecting back" without prompting, most were "connecting back" with prompting. Some teachers have resorted to asking students to write it down and are conferencing with those who seem to be struggling with it. "Thinking about thinking" remains amorphous.
5. The pre and post test was NOT closely matched with the student behavior/performance elicited by the instructional process. The instructional process always occurred in groups and was almost always oral. The assessment process was individual and written, which was very different.

IMPACT FOR TEACHERS:

1. Teachers progressed from feeling unnatural and uncomfortable with the material, to feeling free to modify and adjust to their individual needs, students, curriculum, and teaching styles.

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[13] Audiences for this report were program developers, principal, and teachers.

2. Teachers felt that they had added very useful strategies to their repertoire.
3. Teachers felt that they had increased their sensitivity to thinking processes within their curriculum. They catch students thinking more often, talk about thinking more often, and focus on connecting back throughout the curriculum.
4. There was a lot of collegial interaction during implementation, sharing ideas for infusion, and sharing stories about what happened within lessons.

FOLLOW-UP RECOMMENDED:

1. Continue working with the project. Go on to the next strategy.
2. Continue collegial interaction on implementation of the Thinking Skills Project.
3. Share the thinking skills lessons with other members of the staff (especially the middle school).
4. Get involved with other thinking skills training opportunities.

Example of a More Detailed Report

INFORMAL EVALUATION OF THE THINKING SKILLS PROJECT

March 1989

I. AUDIENCES AND THEIR QUESTIONS

A. **Program developers' questions:**

1. Did the teachers use the materials as prescribed?
2. How did the materials work?
3. Feedback on the materials and prescriptions?
4. Where to from here?

B. **Principal's questions** (principal was evaluator):

1. What impact was there for students and teachers? What are the early indicators of impact/improvement?
2. How did the process work?
3. Were collegial interactions increased/effected?
4. Where to from here?

C. **Teachers' questions** (assumed by the evaluator, not confirmed):

1. How are the kids doing?
2. Did the process work?
3. How am I doing?

EVALUATION RESULTS

II. IMPLEMENTATION

A. **Following the prescribed plan:**

1. All teachers carried out the lessons as prescribed, although one stated that she spaced the lessons out longer than she "should" have. Non-classroom teachers (Chapter I and Special Education) experimented with lessons, using them with small groups, primarily with students with learning problems.

   (NOTE: Only classroom teachers were interviewed in depth. All references to "teachers" refers only to classroom teachers unless otherwise specified.)

B. **Teachers' reactions to the skills/lesson sequence:**

1. **Whole class progression through skills sequence:** Teachers struggled with the requirement to keep the whole class in the same place when teaching the progression of skills building up to the "whole" decision making strategy.
2. **Subskill mastery -- individualized pace needed:** Teachers felt a need to individualize more than the process apparently allowed. Some kids seemed

to catch on to the individual skills quickly, while others clearly needed the additional practice provided within the sequence of lessons. The extensive practice on individual subskills provided by the lesson sequence seemed to bore the kids who caught on quickly. To further complicate matters, teachers noted that the "quiet" and unsure kids seemed to "ride" on the ideas and processing of the others.

> *The materials did not allow for individualization/teacher judgment about when to move on with which kids. We need to develop ways to move on when individual kids are ready to go on.* (#4)

> *I don't know how to tell if individuals are catching on or just going along with the group. It is especially difficult with the quiet ones. We lack probing strategies to tell us when kids have caught on to the subskills.* (#3)

3. **Small group processes:** Most teachers used small group processes in the latter lessons.

> *Sometimes I had them work in groups, with each group sharing with the large group what it did.* (#2)

> *After more practice, I experimented with small groups as an enrichment activity... tended to experiment a little after we finished each section.* (#4)

4. **Repetition in middle lessons:** All teachers thought the "middle lessons" provided too much repetition of strategy subskills, delaying for too long the opportunity to practice actually making a decision.

> *The sequencing of the lessons could have been faster. Kids wanted to move on.* (#5)

> *Children became bored with the repetition. They would groan when we pulled it out.* (#2)

> *Kids got bored towards the middle... complete reasons and generating options... lots of moaning and groaning.* (#3)

> *Lessons were too task analyzed... dragged on too much.* (#1)

> *There was too much practice of the same type in some spots.* (#4)

> *The kids really liked it when we put it all together... were bored with the middle practice.* (#3)

5. **Repetition of Jack and the Beanstalk:** Teachers zeroed in on the repeated use of Jack and the Beanstalk. All but one thought that it was used too often, resulting in more moans and groans from the kids. However one teacher thought that it was well used because it allowed them to focus on the process while taking the content for granted.

> *Regarding the continuous resurfacing of Jack and the Beanstalk... I think it was good because it avoided the kids becoming anxious about the content, they could focus on the process. It felt easy to them because they felt familiar with it. Some people thought it was boring when it kept coming up. At first, the kids would*

react, "Oh no, not this again!" but I assured them we would do something different with it. They settled in and found it easy. (#4)

C. **Infusion:**

1. **Finding decision-points embedded in the curriculum:** Teachers were challenged by the task to find decision points "naturally" occurring within their pre-determined curriculum.

   Had a hard time finding ones imbedded into the curriculum, so I made up some scenarios. It wasn't quite as infused as it should be. It was often hard to infuse into the "whole class" curriculum. Would have been easier with small groups. (#3)

   I needed more help, more options with regard to decision points. It was hard to add the program to all the other things I was already doing. Squeezing in a 34 minute lesson is hard. (#5)

2. **Social studies and reading easiest:** One teachers commented that it was difficult but possible to infuse the strategy into the science curriculum. She used pollution of the rain forests and was anticipating some decisions related to her upcoming units on animals.

III. IMPACT FOR KIDS

A. **Kids' progress/growth:**

1. **Recognizing decision points:** Kids can reliably recognize decision points without prompting. Several teachers reported incidents like the following:

   Recently we were doing a lesson which involved a discussion about curiosity. We read a story which presented a situation of a boy in front of a wall, and wondering about what was on the other side. Jared said, "What a great decision point!" I couldn't have programmed it better! So we stopped right there in the discussion and did the decision making process. (#1)

2. **Developing creative options/moving beyond obvious options:** Kids have developed a solid understanding that there are always more than the obvious options.

   They are more aware of when there is a decision, there is more than either/or. (#2)

   When we pro and con'd, they never chose the obvious options. Before they always did. (#4)

   Kids are able to recognize decision points in their personal lives. Now they know there are more than just black and white options. (#1)

3. **Improving the quality of creative options:** At first kids generated silly or irrelevant options, but as time went on their options became more realistic and appropriate.

At the beginning their creative options were extreme... too creative. Now they are much more realistic. (#1)

Some kids gave silly answers. Later they recognized their silliness. They gave more appropriate answers as time went on. (#5)

4. **Confidence levels:** It appears that mastery of the process is closely related to confidence in the quality of the decision.

When it has been done in small groups and the groups shared what they came up with, the ones who struggled were less confident in their decision. They would change their minds. Those who handled the process well hung on to their decision. (#3)

B. **Connecting back and thinking about thinking:** "Connecting back" and "thinking about thinking" were difficult for both teachers and students. Over time students improved considerably. The older the students were, the more progress they seemed to make.

At first connect back resulted in blank looks. With more practice, it became easier for them to connect back. (#1)

Connecting back and thinking about thinking are the hardest. (#3)

Connect back remained difficult for them. (#5)

I don't feel that the students are there with connecting back. Some are, some aren't. We need to keep working on it. I don't know why it's so hard for them. It seems like they should be more able to do it than they are. (#4)

I haven't caught them connecting back on their own. They still need prompting. (#1)

Don't see much carry over. When they have to think, they really need prompting. (#2)

I estimate 100% can connect back with prompting. Estimate 65% can connect back without prompting. (#4)

As I pick topics that they can relate to they do better. They get excited. I wonder if their earlier difficulties had to do with content provided in the lessons. The closer we got to personal life decisions, the more excited they got and the more they could connect back. (#1)

They do a lot more connecting, even without prompting. At this point they don't always realize they're connecting. (#4)

Writing it down: Some teachers have begun asking their students to write responses for connecting back and thinking about thinking in order to monitor individual progress more closely.

I have begun asking about connect back and thinking about thinking on paper. That's how I know who does and who does not get it. I have a conference with those who do not get it. (#4)

C. **The pre/post test:** Teachers felt that the pre and post testing process was not very closely matched to the student performance elicited by the instructional process.

> *The assessment process (pre and post test) is VERY different from the teaching and performing process. The teaching and performing is all oral and within a group, the testing is written and individual.* (#3)
>
> *For 3rd grade level, the pretest was too difficult... frustrating. Language was difficult. Boston Tea Party was hard for them to relate to.* (#1)

IV. IMPACT FOR TEACHERS

A. **Teachers' progress/growth:** Teachers showed a clear progression; beginning with a high level of discomfort, which soon transformed into a comfortable and "natural" use of the material, concluding with a sense of mastery of the material enabling them to modify parts next time they used them.

1. **At the beginning:** At first teachers followed the script and prescriptions to the letter.

   > *At first I was real uncomfortable with the material... like using a foreign language. I stuck real close to the script.* (#1)
   >
   > *Scripts that come later (lesson 6-7 and on) would have been more helpful in the beginning (where there was little or no script or script was embedded in general directions.) By the time it was provided, I didn't need it. But I really did need it in the beginning because I wasn't confident yet.* (#4)

2. **Later on:** As teachers moved through the lessons, they began to feel much more comfortable.

   > *Now it feels like a natural process. I can integrate it into whatever I'm doing.* (#1)
   >
   > *I went less by the script, more like I normally do, as I moved on to later lessons. It became more natural.* (#4)

3. **Anticipation:** As teachers talk about reinforcement this year and/or repeating the sequence of lessons another time, they comment that they will take shortcuts and will use bits and pieces of the strategy as it seems right.

   > *Next time through I would take some shortcuts. The first time through I didn't feel free (confident) enough to do that.* (#1)
   >
   > *Won't use it in detail. Will use parts when it applies, especially in group and independent work.* (#2)
   >
   > *I want to do a classroom decision where we'll all have to live by the decision we have made.* (#4)
   >
   > *I tell students that they won't use the whole strategy all the time but will choose and use bits and pieces of the strategy... i.e., generating options, pros and cons, etc., e.g, with social problems.* (#4)

B. **Adding strategies to their repertoire:** Teachers report that they appreciated the new ideas and have added parts of the process to their repertoire for spontaneous use whenever it seems appropriate.

> *It lifted me out of a rut. I could relate to it. It looked like it would really work, even before I tried it (versus Math Their Way). Was easy to take off and do.* (#2)
>
> *Gave me other options for discussion of literature. Added another avenue for exploration and discussion.* (#1)
>
> *I use little parts of the process, e.g., with classroom behavior.* (#5)

C. **Collegial interaction:** Teachers report that their interaction was always high, but that this project caused them to talk more across grade levels.

> *Interaction with colleagues was always high. This program tied 3-5 together a little more as we shared frustrations and accomplishments.* (#1)
>
> *There was lots of talk about the process among all my colleagues.* (#4)

D. **Greater sensitivity to the thinking process:** Teachers report that they have become more attentive to thinking processes throughout the curriculum.

> *I tend to go more into depth on thinking and reasoning now. I talk over the concepts more, and pursue the subject more in depth. I ask more, "why did you think that way" questions.* (#2)
>
> *I catch them thinking more often. I lead them into thinking more often. I talk about thinking more often. I'm always on the lookout for ways to use it; ways/places to infuse decision making into the curriculum. I'm more aware of connecting back throughout everything I do, and I am more focused on it.* (#4)
>
> *I have become more aware of decision points in the curriculum.* (#3)

V. FOLLOW-UP

A. **Continue working with the project:** Teachers report that they will continue to work with the decision-making strategy, and would like to add the next strategy (function?) to their repertoire.

B. **Get involved in other thinking training opportunities:** Teachers report that they would like to be involved in other training events involving thinking skills. They specifically mentioned the upcoming Vermont-ASCD Conference featuring Robin Fogarty, and referred back to the usefulness of Art Costa's work, especially the 12 characteristics of good thinkers.

C. **Continue collegial interaction on thinking:** Teachers reported an interest in continuing to share their learnings and experiences in their attempt to improve thinking processes. They suggested we share the use of the decision-making strategy with other teachers in the building. Some teachers would like to be involved in observing and coaching each other.

Share more kid products and teacher processes. A thinking fair? (like a science fair) (#3)

Continue meeting about our processes. (#4)

Have staff brainstorm resources for decision points. (#5)

Share it with those who haven't had the opportunity to do it. (#2)

Get the word out to the middle school, encourage them to use it. (#4)

Spread the program out to new people... perhaps even the whole staff. (#3)

Try some pairing up and checking on our use. (#4)

Guidelines for Collaborative Work

These guidelines suggest how we can take collective responsibility for improving schools. The climate for reform gives us a rare opportunity to change the ways we work that may be both deep and lasting.

- Some type of organizational structure is needed to collaborate.
- A small core of people actually work on the collaboration.
- Time for collaboration is allotted.
- Skillful people working together enhance collaborative work.
- Initially, *activities* propel the collaboration, not goals.
- Large superordinate goals for collaboration become clearer after people have worked together.
- People often underestimate the amount of energy it takes to work with other people.
- Collaboration with schools demands an understanding of schools as complex social organizations shaped by the realities of specific contexts.
- Ambiguity and flexibility more aptly describe collaborations than certainty and rigidity.
- Conflict in collaborative work is inevitable; it has the potential for productive learning.
- People can participate in collaborative work for different reasons, but the reasons should include wanting to do things together.
- Products created by collaborating create an important sense of pride in collaborative work.
- Shared experiences over time build mutual trust, respect, risk-taking, and commitment.

From: Ann Lieberman. "Collaborative Work," *Educational Leadership,* February 1986. Reprinted by permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Problem-Solving Capsule

Each person will have one cycle as "helpee" and two cycles as "helper."

Helpee describes back-home staff development problem and goal. (5 minutes)	Helpee describes staff development problem and goal; helpers listen.
⇓	
Helpers ask clarifying questions about described situation and goal. (5 minutes)	Helpers ask "what" types of questions of helpee.
⇓	
Helpee writes description of situation and goal statement on guidesheet. - - - - - - - - - - - - - Helpers reflect on strategies and alternative solutions. (5 minutes)	Silent time is reserved for helpee to capture the existing situation and the working goal. Concurrent silent time is used by each helper to jot down ideas, strategies, and alternative solutions to the problem. (No sharing at this time.)
⇓	
Helpers brainstorm alternative solutions. (5 minutes)	During this period, helpers report to the helpee various ideas and alternatives. Helpee records ideas. (Keep to a brainstorming format . . . no questions or discussions! "Yeah buts" not allowed.)
⇓	
Helpee clarifies alternatives. (5 minutes)	The helpee now goes through the list of brainstormed alternatives and asks for clarification of any ideas of specific interest. The helper can then elaborate on suggestions made.
⇓	
Helpee reflects on alternatives and identifies some next steps. (5 minutes)	This is quiet time reserved for the helpee to reflect on the ideas, strategies, and solutions suggested and to identify possible courses of action, including a concrete "first step." These are recorded on the guidesheet.

Guidesheet - Problem Solving Capsule

Situation Description and Goal Statement

Solution Alternatives

Course of Action

Implementation Checklist

School Improvement Leadership Projects: A Way of Doing Business

Yes	No		Are You . . .
___	___	1.	checking to see that all of the project participants understand what they are supposed to be doing?
___	___	2.	testing the communications network to see if it is functioning as you intended it to function?
___	___	3.	making sure the resources are present in sufficient quantity and quality?
___	___	4.	listening to staff complaints about the project to determine if they are valid?
___	___	5.	receiving support from leaders now that the project is actually under way?
___	___	6.	satisfied that the community is sufficiently aware of the goals and expected products of the project?
___	___	7.	meeting your timeline with products and/or events?
___	___	8.	contacting the parent project about any additional staff training which might need to be done?
___	___	9.	utilizing the management structure so that all participant groups have influence on decisions?
___	___	10.	preparing for any needed alterations in methods, timeline, or resources?
___	___	11.	creating an environment which causes project participants to be comfortable in discussing their feelings with you?
___	___	12.	using the media for publicity about the project?
___	___	13.	seeing evidence that the formative evaluation plan is functioning?
___	___	14.	preparing for summative evaluation?
___	___	15.	satisfied with the degree of involvement of the various constituent groups?
___	___	16.	maintaining a sufficient degree of flexibility to make needed changes?
___	___	17.	giving thought to continuation of the project into another year, and/or expansion of the project into other sites?

From: Project Selection Kit, Georgia Research and Development Utilization Project. Reprinted by permission of the Georgia State Department of Education.

__ __ 18. considering a special presentation to your board so that they understand what is to be done and why?

__ __ 19. double-checking to see that the planning (which is pre-implementation) needed for a successful implementation has been done?

Sample Agenda
Loon School District
Staff Development Retreat
June 1988

> *"Probably nothing within a school has more impact upon students in terms of skills development, self-confidence, or classroom behavior than the personal and professional growth of their teachers . . . When teachers stop growing, so do their students."*
>
> *- Roland Barth*

Objectives:

1. To renew, deepen and extend knowledge of successful staff development.
2. To enhance collegiality and networking among staff and between schools.
3. To examine strengths and needs of our staff development system.
4. To develop plans for continuation and improvement during 1988-89.
5. To have fun.

Loon School District
Staff Development Retreat

June 29-30, 1988

Day 1

8:00 - 8:30	INTRODUCTIONS AND OVERVIEW
Part I	☐ Review of Objectives and Agenda ☐ Involvement Activity -- "Characteristics I Value in a Colleague"
8:30 - 9:00	REVISITING TEAM BUILDING (I)
Part II	☐ What Is Team Building? (Information and Assessment)
9:00 - 12:00	ASSESSING STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Part III	☐ Building Update ☐ Guidelines for Collaborative Work ☐ Diagnosing the Staff Development System (Team Building II: "Stages in Group Development")
12:00 - 1:00	LUNCH
1:00 - 3:00	PROBLEM-SOLVING
Part IV	☐ Heterogeneous Task Forces Work ☐ Problem-Solving Capsule (Team Building III: "Characteristics of Effective Groups")
3:00 - 3:30	REPORT OUT / DISCUSSION / MODIFICATION
5:00 - 6:00	ATTITUDE ADJUSTMENT
6:00 - 8:30	BANQUET AND AWARDS CEREMONY

Day 2

8:00 - 8:30	OVERVIEW AND ODDS AND ENDS ☐ Involvement Activity -- Synectics ☐ Question Board
8:30 - 12:00 Part V	REVISITING SUCCESSFUL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES ☐ Synthesis of Research ☐ Jigsaw -- The Gestalt of Staff Development ☐ Open-Ended Case Study and Simulated Planning
12:00 - 1:00	LUNCH
1:00 - 3:00	BUILDING PLANNING ☐ Developing Plans ☐ Creative Pessimism (Team Building IV: "A Yardstick for Measuring the Growth of a Team")
3:00 - 3:30	REPORT OUT / DISCUSSION / MODIFICATION

Excerpt from a Staff Development Award Ceremony

I. Introduction

This is the close -- for the year -- of a long relationship. It's also the final meeting of the full group. For this reason we've planned a small award ceremony as our way of saying "thank you" for the time, energy, and commitment that you are putting into making your schools better places. You have survived the perils and joys inherent in professional growth.

II. Our first team awards are broken into six categories:

1. Our first category is the *TENACIOUS TASK AWARD*. This award is presented to the group who exhibited the ultimate in task dedication. This group walked a straight and narrow line between 8-5. This was the group that wanted no frills, no games. They clung tenaciously to the task, doing their best, working their hardest. You'll remember they wanted to start at 7 a.m. or even 6 a.m!! So they wouldn't waste time. We did note some frivolity toward evening. They exhibited a lust for the high life and partying. The tenacious task award goes to - - -
2. The second award is the *IRREPRESSIBLE CREATIVE SPONTANEITY AWARD*. This award goes to the team who has demonstrated the most versatility *and* the ability to think on their feet, although occasionally on the floor. The award goes to the team whose creative skills seem to be endless. This is typified by their introductory (and secondary and tertiary) dramatic role playing ability (and ensuing lawsuits) including their proficiency at charades, and by their range and skill at song and dance as vehicles for dissemination (at all hours of the day and night . . . and in all sorts of places) -- from crackerjacks to Canada -- and for their sometimes uproarious laughter. For the team with the most irrepressible, creative spontaneity, the winner is - - -
3. The third category is the *Ultimate Verification and Validation Award*. This award goes to the team who, realizing the importance of involving the total school community, has carefully and laboriously, patiently verified, re-verified, validated and re-validated, and re-validated the re-validation . . . etc. . .
4. *Around To It Award*. There is a team among us who is incredibly busy. It has been overheard that they have recently developed a "new program" in order to oversee existing "new programs." One of the difficulties they have encountered is having enough time to get around to their staff development project. Getting around to it is a most important task. The word is around that until they get around to it, their staff development planning will be forever on the unfinished business portion of the agenda.

III. We'd like now to present some individual awards for those individuals who have demonstrated outstanding performance, or in some cases rather unique performance.

SIMON LEGREE AWARD:

The novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* immortalized the character of Simon Legree as one who is a stern taskmaster, one who whips defenseless people, and one who has the determination to pursue a goal relentlessly.

There were several potential candidates for this award sitting among you here tonight; however, one person has a slight edge. So, for the Simon Legree Award, we recognize. . .

JANET COOKE -- WASHINGTON POST AWARD:

Remember Janet is the young newswriter for the Washington Post who recently won the Pulitzer Prize for her story and then had to admit that her work had all been a figment of her imagination. She lost the Prize as a result.

We have among us tonight a person who was instrumental in writing the proposal that a certain school district needed to help in staff development. Since being awarded this grant, we've heard all about what the district has been doing, how successful it has been, and how their staff development has been on-going for some time.

So, for the best fictional writing of the year, we realize . . . . . for his ability to fool the State Department.

CONSUMER REPORTS AWARD:

Most of you are familiar with *Consumer Reports.* It is a magazine that tests, tests, and re-tests products to determine their safety, their use-ability, do they meet their advertised claims, etc.? Many people depend on *Consumer Reports* as their guide to product purchases.

Like the people who depend upon Consumer Reports, there are many teachers and others back there in your districts who are waiting with all kinds of questions, cynicism, and even traps to prevent you from reaching your goal. Some of them are waiting for a stamp of approval from at least one member of your team who, they feel, has done the testing, who has established the credibility, who has verified the claims. So, the Consumer Reports Award goes to the person who has done the testing and verified the truth -- . . .

Jigsaw:
A Cooperative Learning Activity

What Is Staff Development?

1. Form Home Groups of four. Each person in the group chooses one article:

    •

    •

    •

    •

    Read.

2. Create Expert Groups by partnering up with others with the same article. Discuss the most significant points presented by the author. Plan how to teach your peers and develop a one page crib sheet to do it with.

3. Rejoin Home Group and teach about the articles.

4. Develop a portrait of staff development that incorporates the major points discussed in Step 3.

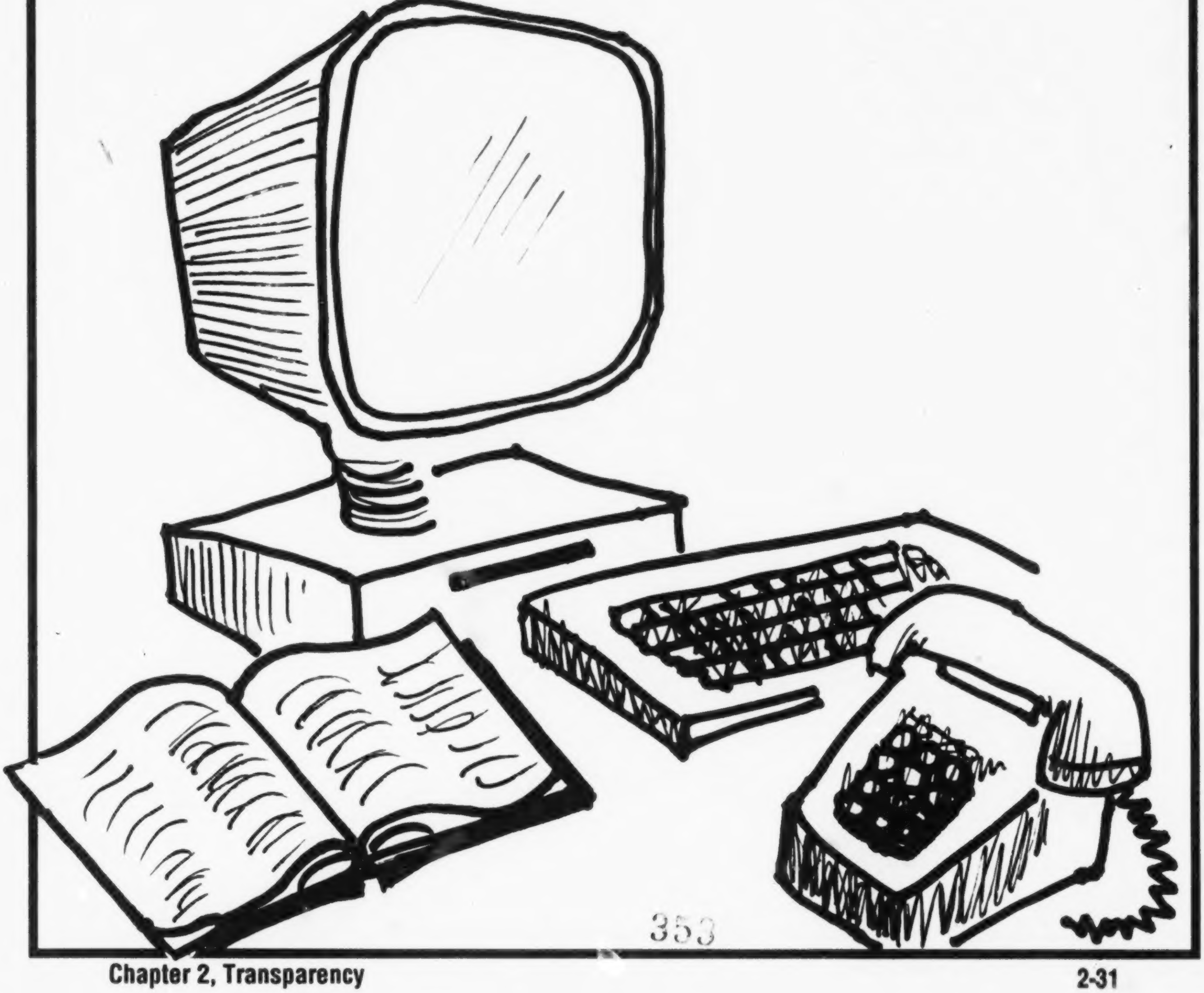
1. Collegiality & Collaboration

351

2. Experimentation & Risk Taking

352

3. Use of Available Knowledge Bases



353

4. Participant Involvement

354

5. Time

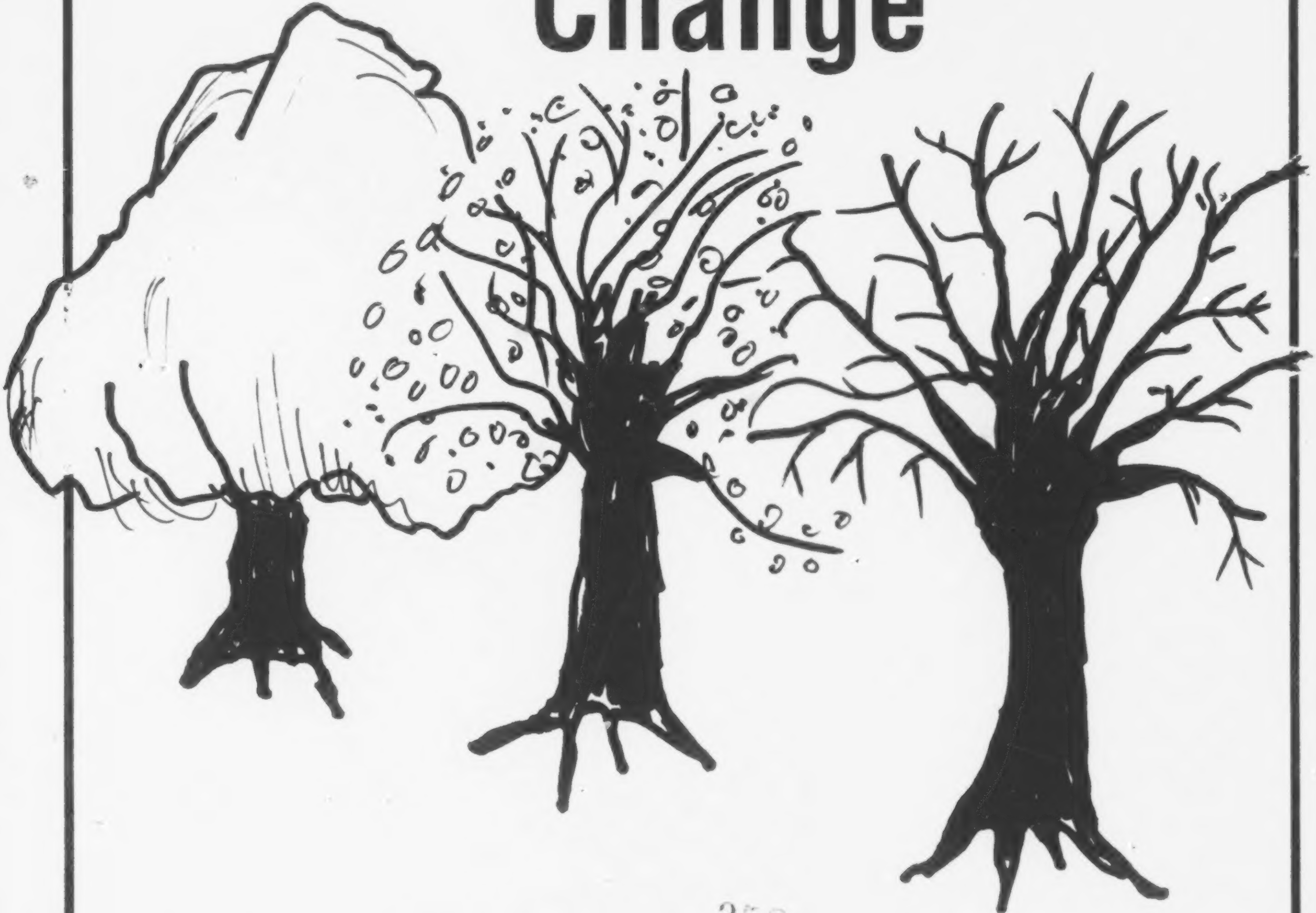
12
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

6. Leadership & Sustained Support

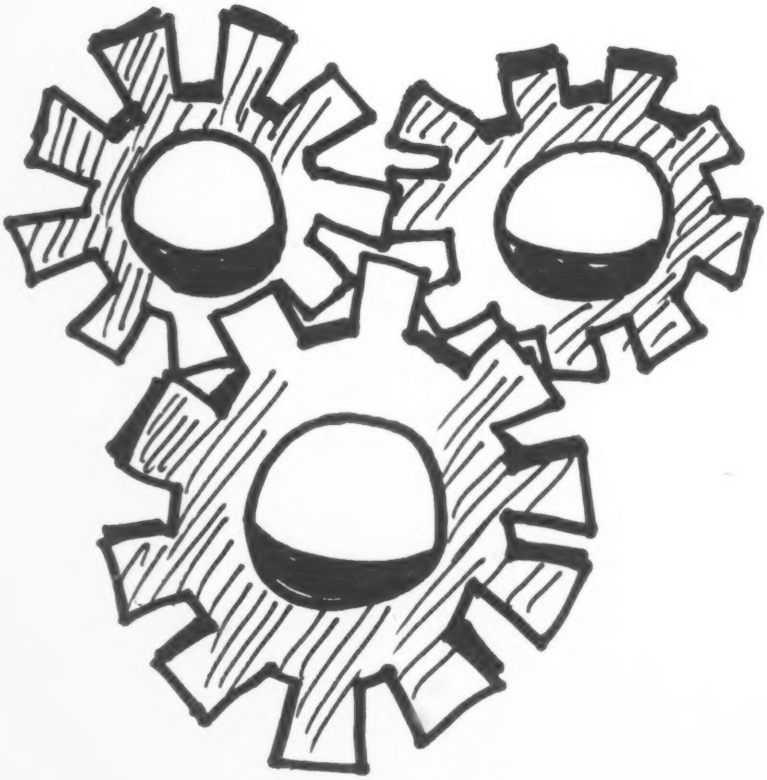
7. Appropriate Incentives & Rewards

357

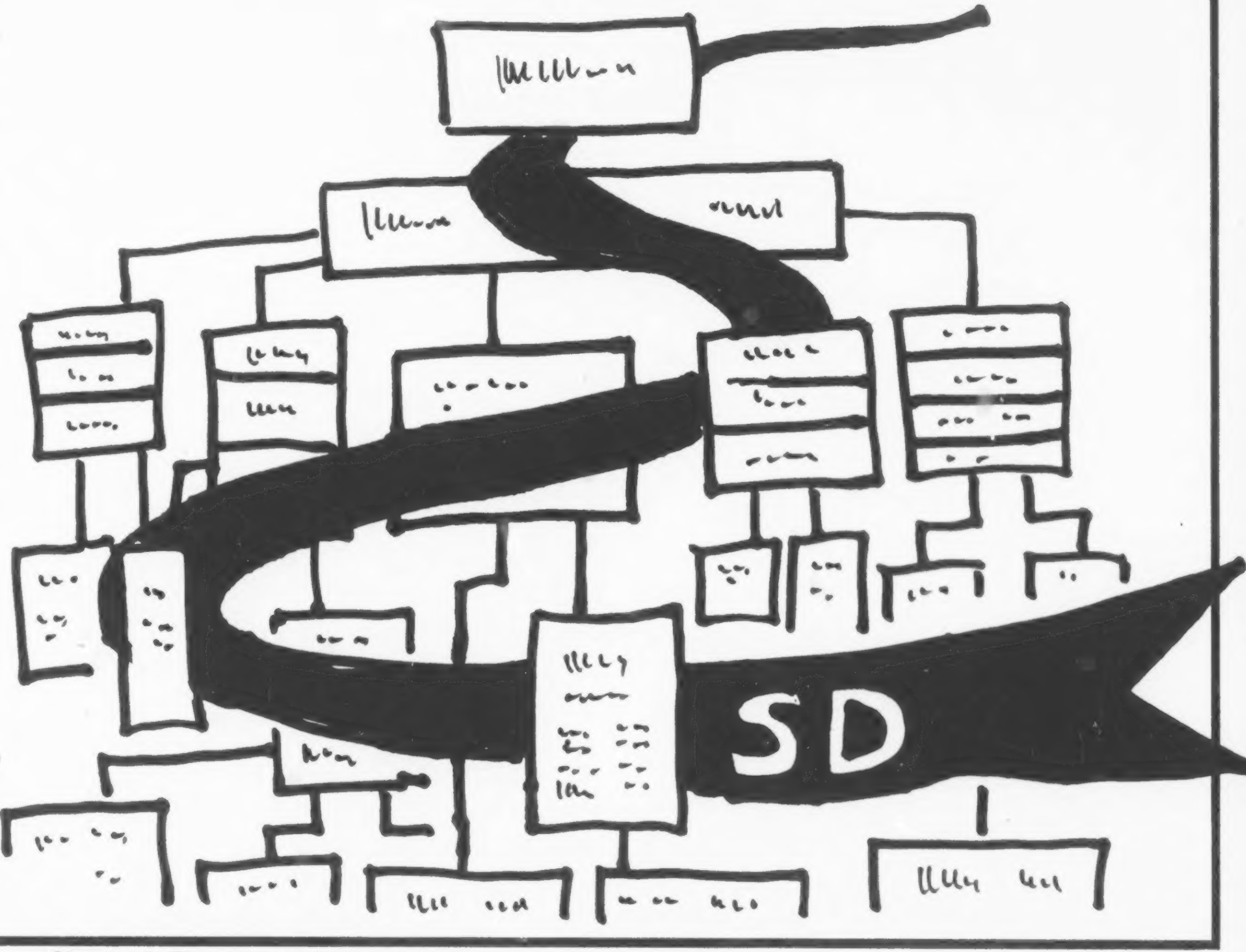
8. Application of Knowledge about Adult Learning & Change



9. Integration of Individual, School, and District Goals



10. Integration of Staff Development with Organization's Philosophy & Structure



Designing a Staff Development Structure

1. Form collaborative team
2. Educate the team
3. Develop mission statement
4. Develop management plan
5. Secure support
6. Operationalize
7. Maintain and continue

Stages of Team Development

Forming

Dependent on leader

Concern about clarity of task

Storming

Conflict with members, leader, and task

Norming

Cohesiveness

Shifting leadership

Performing

Interdependency

Creativity

High productivity

Principles for Effective Teamwork

Responsibility for the team is shared by all members.

Decisions should always be agreed to by the team.

Use methods which encourage full participation.

Be flexible.

Cut down the threat to individual members.

Continually evaluate team progress.

Team members should be conscious of the importance of their roles.

Sabotaging the Team

Blocking

Attacking

Being playful

Seeking recognition

Deserting

Pleading special interest

Dominating

Group Task Behaviors and Roles

Initiating

Information / Opinion seeking

Information / Opinion giving

Clarifying / Elaborating

Summarizing

Setting objectives

Testing workability

Checking

Gatekeeping

Harmonizing

Relieving tensions

Encouraging

Approaches to Assessment

Problem Focused	Research Says	Curricular Changes	Exemplary Programs	Mandates
Focus: major school problems Appropriate in schools facing significant problems that affect most of the school and impede learning. Commonly used in schools facing school climate problems.	Focus: the knowledge base about teaching and learning Appropriate in schools not facing major problems. Usually liked by administrators and disliked by teachers.	Focus: curricular changes Appropriate in schools implementing new curricula.	Focus: existing, exemplary staff development programs Appropriate in good schools with experienced, stable staff.	Focus: needs determined by authorities Appropriate when needs are obvious and resources are available.

Effective Designs for Learning

Alternative Solutions or Improvement Strategies

Alternative Formats or Approaches

Available Resources

Matching Resources, Formats, and Approaches with Local Needs and Participant Concerns

Skills in Selecting Consultants

Thoughtful Planning and Successful Staff Development Practices

Assumptions of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM)

CHANGE:

- Is a PROCESS, not an event
- Is made by INDIVIDUALS first, then organizations
- Is a highly PERSONAL experience
- Entails DEVELOPMENTAL growth in feelings and skills

INTERVENTIONS must be related to:

- The people first
- The innovation second

Fuller's Sequence of Concerns About Teaching

IMPACT

TASK

SELF

UNRELATED

Evaluation Questions

Who cares?
Who are the audiences for the evaluation?

What are the evaluation purposes?
What do the audiences want to know?

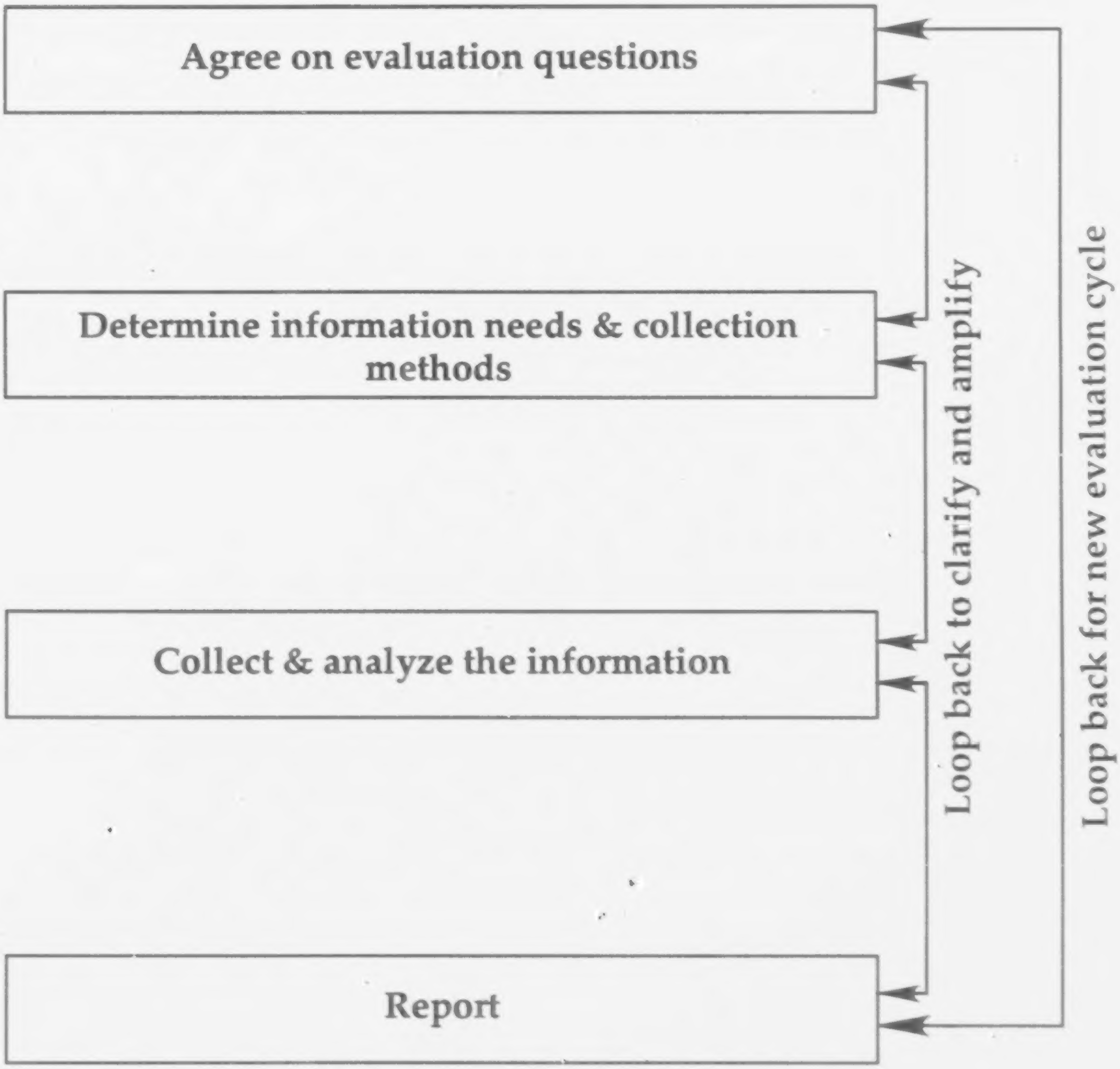
What program outcomes will be measured?

What evaluation activities will occur?

Who should participate and in what ways?

What does it mean?

Evaluation Process: Key Decisions



Agree on evaluation questions

Determine information needs & collection methods

Collect & analyze the information

Report

Loop back to clarify and amplify

Loop back for new evaluation cycle

A Worksheet for Information Collection

Evaluation Question	Information Sources	Collection Method	Responsibility	Timeline
How do the training and follow-up affect participants' classroom behavior?	Teachers Supervisors Students	Observations using checklist Interviews	Teacher-as-researcher cadre	Oct-Nov (before training) April-May (after training)
Have this year's staff development offerings been relevant to teachers' needs? *What changes are desired for next year?*	Teachers	Written survey	Staff Development Coordinator	May
What is the impact of the creation of school-based staff development teams?	Teachers Principals District administrators, coordinators Community members	Ethnography	University graduate students supervised by district Evaluation Coordinator	Sept-Aug

Areas for Participant Involvement

1. Clarifying goals and success indicators
2. Designing the study
3. Developing methods of information collection
4. Collecting/supplying information
5. Analyzing information
6. Reporting learnings

Evaluating Program Outcomes

	Pre-Post Measures	Survey	Observation	Interview	Document Analysis	Other Unobtrusive Measures
Changes in participants' knowledge base	X	X				
Changes in participants' skill level & use		X	X	X	X	X
Changes in participants' opinions and feelings		X		X		X
Changes in organizational capacity		X	X	X		X
Changes in student performance	X	X	X	X	X	X

The Personal Factor

Evaluation will have impact when there is:

1. a decision maker who has clear questions
2. an evaluator who is committed to answering those questions
3. a decision maker who is committed to using the answers

From Patton, 1982

Ways To Identify Key Audiences

With the program clearly in mind, answer:

- Who are program PRODUCERS?
- Who are program BENEFACTORS?
- Who are potential LOSERS?

and/or

- Who has EXPERTISE?
- Who has JURISDICTION?
- For whom is it most RELEVANT?

Selecting Respondents

1. Draw a purposive or theoretical sample (instead of random).

2. Optimize the information return.

3. Ask each respondent to nominate another who thinks *differently*.

4. STOP when:
    - Sources are exhausted
    - Information is redundant
    - Resources are exhausted

Purposes of Evaluation

	Formative	Summative
Process	How should we change activities to make the program work better?	Were activities implemented as planned/desired?
Outcome	What changes occur as we go along?	What changes occurred over time?
Judgment	Is it what the audience expected? desired?	Does the audience think it's an improvement?

Relationship Between Process and Outcome

Does what we
are doing

= = result in = =>

changes in

participants?

?

Causality

Difference Between Impact and Improvement

Impact asks: Is something different?

Requires empirical data

Improvement asks: Is something better?

Requires value judgments from audiences

Interviewing for What People Care About: Concerns and Issues

CONCERNS

Definition:

- Claims
- Outcomes
- Intents
- Threats
- Undesirable Consequences

Evaluation Task:

- Confirm/Disconfirm
- Illuminate/Illustrate

ISSUES

Definition:

- Anything about which two or more *reasonable* persons may disagree

Evaluation Task:

- Aid in understanding two or more sides
- Help to resolve/reduce conflict

Interviewing for What People Care About: Descriptor and Context Factors

DESCRIPTOR

Definition:

- Perceptions about elements of the program
- May be faulty
- Describes "how it works"

Evaluation Task:

- Check for accuracy
- Pick up natural language

CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

Definition:

- Forces/constraints that compel/inhibit action
- Beyond the power of sponsors to control

Evaluation Task:

- Identify and describe their impact/influence on the program

Interviewing for What People Care About: Values

VALUES

Definition:

- Principles and standards that lead to judgments of:

  1. Relative utility
  2. Goodness
  3. Importance
  4. Choices among alternatives

Evaluation Task:

- Discover the contextual values
- Determine whether consensual or pluralistic
- Take account of existing values when making recommendations
- Clarify the value structure and make it apparent to *each* audience

Content Analysis: Unitizing and Analyzing

Step 1: Unitizing

Assign preliminary categories

Abstract on a 3x5 card any item that is a(n):

- Concern
- Issue
- Descriptor
- Contextual Factor
- Value

Cross reference each item to source

Step 2: Categorizing: Sorting into look-alike piles

Use miscellaneous pile for items that don't fit existing categories

Check later to see if new categories have emerged

Step 3: Titling: Characterizing the piles

Title/name each pile -- catch the essence

Assess category set:

- Can you combine or break them up?
- Can some be subsumed under broader ones?
- Assess miscellaneous pile:

  -- Fit in refined set of categories?
  -- New category?

Adjustments:

- Note predicted categories
- Note incomplete categories

Plan further data collection . . .

* RECYCLE * RECYCLE * RECYCLE *

Key Points for Surveys:

Why Do a Survey?

To determine validity

- State "learnings"
- 3-7 point scale/label with attributes that suggest validity, agreement, truth, degree
- Items with low validity → eliminate from further consideration
- Items about which different audiences reflect different realities → study further

To determine priority

- Ask respondents to rank order or assess "absolute priority" on 3-7 point scale

Take items seriously when:

- All audiences agree about its validity and/or priority
- Audiences disagree about validity or priority
- If all audiences agree that an item lacks validity or is of low priority, it can be safely disregarded.

Survey Design

(Part One)

Wording questions

- Spell out precisely what you want to learn.
- Avoid double-barreled questions.
- Be short and direct.
- Introduce variety in responses.
- Avoid bias.
- Avoid questions "too sophisticated" -- use natural language.

Survey Design

(Part Two)

Question and Answer Form

Close-ended:

- Advantages: uniform frame of reference for respondents; easy and inexpensive to tabulate
- Disadvantage: loses richness of detail

Open-ended:

- Advantages: allows respondent freedom to frame answer; allows study of how respondents think, not just what.
- Disadvantage: takes more time to analyze

Survey Design

(Part Three)

Constructing the survey

- Ask open-ended questions before close-ended questions on the same topic.
- Begin with general ("easy") questions to put respondent at ease.
- Questions should flow from one another, not jump from topic to topic.
- Group questions together, using introductory sentence when changing topics.

Pilot test before the "real thing"

What Does It Mean?

What's the Standard for Success and Failure?

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Prespecified standards	avoid disagreement later avoid collecting wrong data	require reaching consensus before getting started risk missing information on unanticipated outcomes
Emergent standards for each audience	can continue consensus building as evaluation proceeds reflect school reality of multiple interest groups	require high level of interaction with audiences require more data collection, analysis and reporting

394

Reporting

Report to each stakeholding audience

Vary the substance: Match audience interests and information needs

Vary the form: From technical/written to informal/oral

Substance should include:

Thick description -- vicarious experience
Concerns/Issues of various audience

Highlight

- Differences in audience priorities
- Differences in audience values
- Standards for making judgments
- Sources of the standards (who says so?)

Reach judgments and recommendations interactively with audiences

Reporting is a continuous activity

Evaluation is most useful when it increases understanding of the program

Be sensitive to human and political factors

Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide

List of Readings*

Chapter 2. Educating the Decision Makers

Roland Barth. "Staff Development," Chapter 8 in *Run School Run,* Harvard University Press, 1980. (Activity 1)

Tesfatsion Dalellew and Yvonne Martinez. "Andragogy and Development: A Search for the Meaning of Staff Development," *The Journal of Staff Development*, Summer 1988. (Activity 3)

Thomas Guskey. "Staff Development and the Process of Teacher Change," *Educational Researcher*, May 1986. (Activity 3)

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers. "Design of Training: Providing the Conditions for Learning," *Student Achievement Through Staff Development*, Longman, Inc., 1988. (Activity 3)

Linda Lambert. "The End of an Era of Staff Development," *Educational Leadership*, September 1989. (Activity 3)

Susan F. Loucks and Patricia Zigarmi. "Effective Staff Development," *Educational Considerations*, Winter 1981. (Activity 3)

"Schools Where Teachers Learn: Promising Directions for Staff Develpment," *The Harvard Education Newsletter*, July 1986. (Activity 3)

Terry G. Wildman and Jerry A. Niles. "Essentials of Professional Growth," *Educational Leadership*, February 1987. (Activity 3)

Chapter 3. Designing a Collaborative Structure

"A Monograph on Staff Development." California State Department of Education. (Activity 3B)

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers. "Low-Cost Arrangements for Peer Coaching," *Journal of Staff Development*, Spring 1987. (Activity 3D)

Chapter 4. Team Building

"The Talk Machine and Other Meeting Personas," *Working Woman*, July 1984. (Activity 4)

"The Ten Commandments for Committees," source unknown. (Activity 4)

"The Best Little Meetings in the Company," *Working Woman*, July 1984. (Activity 4)

"The Art of Running a Meeting," *Working Woman*, July 1984. (Activity 4)

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* This list includes all readings with the exception of those found in *Continuing to Learn,* a copy of which is encluded with every copy of *Building Systems for Professional Growth.*

Building Systems for Professional Growth: An Action Guide

Readings, page 2.

Chapter 6. Effective Designs for Learning

Gene E. Hall and Susan F. Loucks. "Teacher Concerns as a Basis for Facilitating and Personalizing Staff Development," *Teachers College Record*, September 1978. (Activity 5)

Pat Roy. "A Consumer's Guide to Selecting Staff Development Consultants," *The Developer*, February 1987. (Activity 6)

Robert T. Fitzgibbon. "The Changing Role of Staff Development Consultants," *The Developer*, April 1987. (Activity 6)

Judy Arin-Krupp. "A Consultant's Perspective on Working with School Districts," *The Developer*, September 1987. (Activity 6)

Chapter 7. Responsive Evaluation

Michael Q. Patton. "Qualitative Interviewing," *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*, Beverly Hills, CA, Sage Publications, 1980. (Activity 4)

Chapter 8. Maintenance and Continuity

Jon Saphier and Matthew King. "Good Seeds Grow in Strong Cultures," *Educational Leadership*, March 1985. (Activity 1)

Beverly Showers, Bruce Joyce, and Barrie Bennett. "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development: A Framework for Future Study and a State-of-the-Art Analysis," *Educational Leadership*, November 1987. (Activity 2)

Susan F. Loucks and Marge Melle. "Evaluation of Staff Development: How Do You Know If It Took? *Journal of Staff Development*, April 1982. (Activity 6)

Roland S. Barth, Run School Run,
1980. Reprinted with permission
from the Harvard University Press.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Staff Development

> Roland has never offered help in the classic sense. He will help you identify the difficulties, he'll listen to you for hours, and he'll support you when you hit a chuckhole, but he does not attempt to solve the problem for you. He does attempt to provide you with resources, to tell you what other people might help, what other places you might go, and he asks you to come back at some point and tell him how you worked it out.
>
> – A teacher

THE PROFESSIONAL LIFE of most teachers is arid, infertile, and poorly cultivated. In *School Teacher,* his searching sociological study, Dan Lortie found three dominant characteristics among teachers: conservatism – a preference for the familiar, the comfortable, and the secure; presentism – a tendency to live from day to day, with little long-range sense of a personal or professional future; and individualism – a quality of loneliness and isolation, even from colleagues across the hall.[1] These qualities are antithetical to personal and professional growth. They work against the professional vitality of each practitioner, even as they erode the effectiveness of schools.

Those who want to improve schools, reformers from without and within, run headlong into this teacher ethos, which they term "resistance to change." They try to coax, subvert, and cajole. Then they try to barrel over, burrow under, or work around teachers – all with little success. These reformers view conservatism, presentism, and isolation as teacher problems to be overcome. I see these characteristics more as symptom than as problem, the inevitable response of teachers to an unhealthy school environment. Those who want to change schools by changing teachers would do better to address the debilitating conditions under which teachers work rather than the teachers themselves.

If we have learned anything about educational change over the past twenty years, it is that change imposed upon schools from without does not work; at best it promotes momentary compliance, which vanishes with the departure of the change agent. On the other hand, change that emerges from within the school, especially from individual teachers, is authentic. The person invested in the change is intrinsic to the situation, committed to both the change and making it work. Changes emanating from classrooms persist as long as the teacher is committed to the idea, which is usually as long as the idea is productive for teacher and students.

Probably nothing within a school has more impact on children, in terms of skills development, self-confidence, and classroom behavior, than the personal and professional growth of teachers. When teachers individually and collectively examine, question, reflect on their ideals, and develop new practices that lead toward those ideals, the school and its inhabitants are alive. When teachers stop growing, so do their students.

In one sense, there is no such thing as staff development or teacher training. When a system deliberately sets out to foster learning in staff members by committing everyone to workshops, little may happen – except that everyone is satisfied that they are going through the motions of doing their job. In another sense, *everything* that happens with teachers in a school has potential for promoting teachers' personal and professional growth. Staff development is least effective when planned, premeditated, and deliberate. It is most fruitful when it is an incidental outcome of other school functions thoughtfully fulfilled.

In that context everything we have discussed to this point can be considered staff development. Expecting teachers to give their best most of the time, and providing them with responsibility and resources to deliver that best, is staff development. Living each day with colleagues diverse in style, method, and philosophy, is staff development. Learning both to tolerate and to respect these differences is staff development. Examining and questioning one's own practices and those of others, and becoming interested, not jealous or frightened, when someone has an exciting new idea is staff development. Providing opportunities for teachers to fantasize about their professional goals at organization time and daring them to realize these dreams is staff development. Working closely each day with another teacher on a team is staff development. Eliminating constraining educational labels and extending the repertoire of instructional ideas and materials available to teachers is staff development. Expecting teachers to assume a large measure of instructional responsibility and develop their own curriculum outlines is staff development.

The placement process too is an important instrument of staff development. When teachers observe in other classrooms and respond to the questions, "Under what conditions does a child learn best?" and "Which of next year's possible classes comes closest to providing these conditions?" they engage in staff development. The hard talks about why parents have strong feelings about placing children in a class offer opportunities for growth. And developing skills to observe children's behavior, keeping records, organizing data, writing reports, and learning to hold effective parent conferences is staff development.

All these activities can powerfully advance the personal and professional growth of schoolpeople. But none of them has staff development as a raison d'être. This is why I find that "in-service training" of teachers, on-the-job professional development, has much greater power and payoff than "pre-service training." These and other contexts for growth are available to the practicing teacher; few are available to the student preparing to teach. The opportunities emerge organically from the job, and the learning they generate is immediately applicable to the teacher's work. In-service professional development is more effective than pre-service professional development because it develops out of the richness of actual school experiences rather than an abstract conceptualization of those experiences.

Immediacy, however, does not make on-the-job staff development either easy or inevitable. Growth-producing experiences must pierce the shell of tension and isolation that surrounds a great many classroom teachers. Like most administrators, I frequently walk through schools with a superintendent or school board member. Inevitably, it seems, when we enter a classroom the teacher's response is friendly—a smile, a handshake, and an invitation to come in and sit down. Yet this outward pleasure is often belied by body language conveying anxiety, if not panic; by tense facial expressions; unnatural laughs; quick, fierce glances at the children; and apologies for noise, the mess, the heat, or the cold. Why are teachers anxious and fearful when principal or superintendent visits their classrooms? I think the answer to that question reveals a good deal about schools, teachers, administrators, the relationship among them, and the possibilities for teacher growth.

The tense response suggests to me that teachers live under a cloud of preoccupation with the discrepancy between performance and expectation, between "what I am doing" and "what they want and expect me to do." The fear comes from the belief that the administrator is there to judge, evaluate, punish, or even dismiss a teacher because of this discrepancy. Teachers, often unsure of what is expected of them and the extent to which they are complying, know only that it is impossible to accomplish all that is expected. Even if teachers are following the curriculum guide to the letter, and if all the children are in the right book and on the right page, they know many children in the class are not doing everything expected of them. Teachers know that the class is not working for some children as it should and that there may be no way to make it work. In short, the anxiety-laden responses to visitors (and the unfortunate classroom practices that spring from fear) are the predictable outcome of saddling teachers with the impossible task of making someone else's ideas and methods work for all students.

As principal, one of my personal goals is to be able to walk through the school at any time, with any guest, and enter any classroom largely unnoticed by children and teacher. I delight in being ignored, because this response suggests a busy, committed teacher, less concerned about what the outsider thinks than whether the activity is going well for as many children as possible. I value this response because it suggests that teachers know what they have planned, and why. They know it works most of the time for them and for the class—and that sometimes it doesn't. When it does not work, they know it is a problem between teacher and child, not between teacher and superior. I find that teachers who respond to visitors with friendly indifference are generally confident and competent. They have personal and professional authenticity. For these teachers the discrepancy that matters is not between "what I am doing" and "what they want me to do," but rather between "what I am doing" and "what I want to be able to do." Teachers who are intent on making professional behavior consistent with their beliefs about children and learning are seldom preoccupied with conformity to the expectations of others. Conversely, the teacher who is unclear on important questions finds that somebody will happily impose external clarity. An instructional vacuum—an empty teacher—is quickly filled by other teachers, parents, principals, school committees, and superintendents. The response of teachers to visitors is a telling indicator of the underlying dynamic operating within a school or school system. It is a response that has powerful implications for staff development.

Joseph Featherstone has observed that "American teachers . . . have the worst of two worlds: they are constantly being harassed by the administration and they are lonely in their work."[2] The *best* of both worlds, on the other hand, is available to the teacher supported by both the administration and a network of collegial relationships. These are conditions conducive to the development of practitioners and to the vitality of a school. They are difficult conditions to provide. But there are ways. I have seen school practices contribute effectively to administrative and collegial support networks and begin to erode the debilitating conditions Lortie and Featherstone have documented. In such schools teachers have no need to flinch when visitors walk through the door.

Promoting Interdependence

If a collection of independent, isolated teachers is to coalesce into a faculty, suspicion and competition among them must give way to a sense of joint venture. This can only be encouraged by providing ample means, opportunities, and occasions for teachers to talk and work with one another. Nothing engenders a feeling of inclusion, nothing increases participation more than advance knowledge of who's doing what; nothing infuriates and isolates more than activities that simply turn up, without prior notice or invitation.

One device would seem too simple to be effective, but we have found it a powerful means for bringing teachers together. This is an in-school weekly periodical (known in our case as ITEMS) to which everyone contributes – provided the contributor's name is signed – and which everyone reads. ITEMS offers an immediate, easy way for teacher, principal, custodian, or secretary to communicate with all other staff members. It also provides a common record of who said what to whom and when. Its spirit and richness is suggested by a look at one issue:

ITEMS

Item:On May 16th we expect a number of visitors from Newton junior high schools and on May 21st from the senior high schools. The procedure will be the same as it has been in the past for all visitors.

Roland

Item:Tuesday, May 8th, we will have a faculty meeting from 1-3 concerning sex education, particularly the implications for all of us of a number of children's books in this area now available in the school.

Marge Hartl and Helen Jaques

Item:There will be a parent-faculty meeting Tuesday afternoon, May 1st, from 1-3 at Louise Freedman's house. If you would like to attend, please see me. The topic is discipline – so your comments are welcome!

Roland

Item:Wednesday, May 2nd, is the next brown bag lunch, from 12 to 1.

Barbara

Item:Is anyone missing a reel, "Behind the Scenes at the Supermarket?" Please see Ann.

Item:The first 4 language arts workshops will be on the "synectics" materials. The school will pay the cost and we are to have 2 people in attendance. I shall be going as part of the language arts summer program. If you are interested please see me. The dates are May 8, May 22, June 19. This should be a great experience.

Nicki

Item:The video tape recorder is being stored in the little room off of Nancy Lankford's office. You *must* sign up in advance to use it. Please do not use it unless you feel comfortable with operating it. It consists of $2,000 worth of equipment – let's be careful!!

Nancy K.

Item: Plea to teachers from Anita Bamel: Now that the nice weather is here and kids are spending more time outdoors, please ask them to confine their noisy activities to places away from the building. Their sitting and playing and shrieking on the grills next to the building creates a major distraction for learning disabled kids trying to learn. The same holds true for girls using the basement girls' room as a social hall. Please ask your kids to cooperate. Thank you.

Anita

Item: The deadline for the following is April 26, Friday:
1) Summer pay (green sheet)
2) Visiting day (yellow sheet).

Ann

Item: All teachers planning a personal day in June should fill in "Plan to be absent" form before May 4th.

Ann

Item: You may count on holding evening parent conferences on the dates previously announced—May 9, 13, 23, 31 and June 6. In the event the custodial situation has not been favorably resolved by May 9 we will hold evening parent conferences in parents' homes—that is, if you can find a parent willing to let you hold 4 to 5 conferences in one evening in their home. I don't anticipate difficulties in making and arranging these, but should they arise we can pursue the church, etc.

Roland

Item: There are a couple of dozen small 48-star American flags in the office. If you can think of a use for them, see Nancy.

This simple, dittoed sheet, rarely more than a page long, serves many functions. It alerts teachers to activities, workshops, and meetings taking place within the school, the community, the system, or the area. No one is left out because the word didn't get far enough along the grapevine:

Item: On Monday, March 7th, from 3:00-4:00 P.M., Paulette Cherniak [a graduate student] will be demonstrating creative movement techniques for classroom use with a group of primary children. You are cordially invited to observe and join in the question/discussion period. The demonstration will be about 40 minutes with 20 minutes for discussion. If you are interested please leave a note in my box.

Sheila

It legitimizes sharing by providing a ready marketplace for teachers to offer ideas and materials to others:

Item: I have access to lots of lovely fabric samples. If you can use any, please let me know.

Debby

Item: I have 12 snails to give away (also a fish tank filter and heater to lend, but no fish tank). Let me know by noon Thursday if you want some snails.

Joan

Item: We have two students who have been trained to operate the "ditto machine" each day. If you have any materials to be run off, they *must* be in the box located in the inner office room by 8:15 A.M. Otherwise they will be done on the following day.

Ruth

ITEMS also provides a simple, small-scale mechanism for teachers to try out ideas and float trial balloons with colleagues:

Item: Several faculty members have indicated a desire to learn more about recent library acquisitions – in addition to the few books introduced to the class during the library period. Irene and I would very much like to share with you information about recent children's books. The problem is, of course, time. Would you be interested in attending a monthly half hour meeting – perhaps at 8 A.M. or 1 P.M. on Thursdays? Any other suggestions? (Please use the tear-off sheet on the bottom of the page to indicate your interest.)

Barbara and Irene,

YES, I WOULD BE INTERESTED IN ATTENDING A MONTHLY MEETING TO HEAR ABOUT NEW BOOKS IN THE LIBRARY. MY PREFERENCE IS

8 A.M.__________ 1 P.M.__________Other__________

____
Teacher's name

ITEMS offers a means for the central office to communicate with the staff, and a way for teacher/coordinators to organize activities without spending valuable time canvassing corridors:

Item: From the superintendent: As you know, there is a paper shortage which will probably become more acute as time goes on. I am sure you have already thought of many ways to save not only paper, but supplies which are either wholly or in part derived from paper. I should like to remind you to:

(1) Reexamine your orders with a view to reducing them as much as possible;

(2) Use both sides of the paper and wherever possible use other materials – e.g., blackboards;

(3) Encourage your students to use all paper supplies with great care for their conservation;

(4) Hold mimeographing and duplicating to the lowest possible minimum.

All of this will entail many changes in the habits of most of us – which may turn out to be a good thing. If you have thought of creative ways to save paper please let me know so that we can share them. Thank you.

Item: The next primary meeting will be Oct. 21st at Meadowbrook from 1:30-3:30. Mrs. Barbara Durant from the Division will be talking about math activities for learning disabled children in the primary grades.

John R.

Item: New arrivals in supply room: manila folders, blunt scissors, pencil sharpeners (first come, first served), pointed scissors (upper grades, 3-6), mucilage, and tissues (K-2). Thanks.

Jeffrey

Item: We are out of coffee and funds. Please bring your own instant coffee and label your name on it with masking tape. Sugar and milk for the coffee will be provided. We'll keep the coffee pot filled with hot water to be used for coffee, tea, or soup.
Faculty Room Committee

ITEMS is used to call meetings and to handle "administrivia," saving faculty meetings for more substantive issues:

Item: Re. late slips, beginning Tuesday the late slip procedure will no longer apply. It's sufficient that each teacher keep a careful record on the attendance sheets of children coming to school after 8:45. When it's clear that a child has been late frequently, please include this data as part of the biannual pupil evaluations. We would appreciate it if you would go over this change with your students prior to Tuesday.
Roland

Finally, it allows us to express staff solidarity, through congratulations, appreciation, and humor:

Item: By all accounts the Open House last night was an extremely successful evening. Congratulations to you all for knowing what you're doing, doing it, and being so able to convey what you're doing to parents.
Roland

Item: Thanks, Anita, for the glorious cheesecake.
An Anonymous Consumer

Item: Our heartfelt thanks to Peggy for the cheerfulness, cooperation, and expertise with which she handled the coordination, typing, and distribution of our pupil evaluations. A yeoman job well done, Peggy.
Shirley

Item: Kathy O'Kelly, a graduate student at Harvard, will be "shadowing" me all day on Monday, April 11th, to see what a principal does—or doesn't.
Roland

The in-school weekly periodical, a mundane enough practice, develops a life of its own and provides a vehicle that can change as well as reflect the school. A lively staff newsletter generates a sense of "us," enhancing the quality of life in the school. Simple, inexpensive practices like newsletters, if conscientiously pursued, frequently have far-reaching effects upon schools and the professional and personal lives of their inhabitants. They are often more important to staff development than a series of glittering workshops run by high-priced outside consultants.

Promoting Resourcefulness

Another seemingly mundane area of school life is the budget. But control of spending is control of people and classrooms and therefore is not to be taken lightly. Each year the Newton school system allocates about

$40 per child for instructional purposes, about $1,000 for a class, or $16,000 for a school of four hundred pupils. Although, this amount represents only about 10 percent of a school's actual budget (salaries, building maintenance, and heating costs command the lion's share), it is a considerable sum. In Newton this account is entrusted to each principal, an excellent example of an uncommon delegation of authority from central office to local school. More typical is the case of a principal in another district who, supporting his teachers' desire to brighten their classrooms, requested funds to purchase paint. The assistant superintendent told him that colors other than the prevailing institutional green would distract children and cause their reading scores to fall. Request refused.

Principals responsible for instructional funds often make unilateral decisions about what books and materials to buy, or they wait and see who asks for money and then selectively purchase what they consider worthwhile materials (perhaps math textbooks) and refuse funds for other uses (perhaps field trips). This frequently leads to a game of "He has it; let's see if I can get it out of him," the burden resting upon each teacher to figure out which lever to pull to win the jackpot. Many principals, being accountable for how funds are spent and responsible for maintaining continuity, deploy monies on behalf of uniformity. They approve, for instance, only reading textbooks by the same publisher. Even so, selectively giving and withholding requires a rationale that will justify decisions to outraged teachers who guessed wrong.

I have chosen to divide the pie in a different way. The central office conveys to me responsibility for the $16,000 allocated to our school. From it I first take what is needed to purchase equipment and materials for the whole school – a new mimeograph machine, a movie projector, classroom materials for the supply closet. A committee of teachers determines these school-wide expenditures; I sign the purchase orders. The remaining money I parcel out according to a formula: $400 to each experienced classroom teacher, teacher's aide, and the principal; $500 to each teacher new to the school; and $500 to each specialist – art, music, library, physical education. How this money is spent is up to the teacher; it can go for texts, games, food, teachers' workshop tuition, testing materials, or field trips. Four hundred dollars – about $10 a week for an entire class – is not very much to spend on 25 students for 185 days. But it is $400 more than many teachers see.

Teachers can draw from their "account" by making requisitions through the district purchasing department (frequently getting good prices but having to wait several weeks for delivery) or by paying cash and submitting a receipt (trading greater expense for immediate delivery). They are reimbursed by the school secretary through a revolving petty-cash fund. The latter practice gives teachers immediate control over materials and supplies, permitting them to introduce new materials tomorrow on the basis of what they observe children doing today.[3]

Although I read and sign each expenditure request because I'm ultimately responsible (and, I confess, because I'm curious to see what teachers are buying), I have never questioned—let alone rejected—a teacher's purchase, even for such frivolous-sounding items as 1,000 tongue depressors for $14.95. (A few weeks later I found the tongue depressors being used by first graders in constructing their own abacuses, and subsequently in building a suspension bridge.) Some teachers make mistakes in spending, but I've never seen the same mistake twice.

Keeping track of separate accounts for two dozen teachers and translating each purchase into a code acceptable to the central office is a nuisance. Still, I have found compensating advantages in this system for myself, for teachers, and for pupils. When each teacher has a personal budget, the principal does not have to justify countless decisions about who got money for what and why. When teachers control the money, they have no illusion that the principal has an unlimited Swiss bank account. When the money runs out, that's it. The budget system has freed me from an imperial role I have always disliked. Rather than judging requests and funding only those I deem valuable, I now enjoy parading in front of teachers possible uses for *their* funds:

> Item: We have received from the federal government two surplus typewriters (all caps) in good working order as part of the swords into plowshares program (they have been used to type induction orders!). If anyone would like one of these machines for classroom use, see Roland. Price: $15 from your account.

When representatives from book companies come to the school, I tell them truthfully that I have only $400. Then, I announce in ITEMS that a salesperson will be in the building to demonstrate, for instance, a new math series for primary grades. Interested teachers come, checkbook in hand. I no longer function as middleman. The salesperson must convince teachers, the direct consumers, that their product is valuable for children. This places these important decisions in the hands of those most qualified to make them.

We have found that teachers entrusted with an instructional budget behave as they do with their personal budgets—they become highly resourceful, responsible, and frugal. With the "system's" funds they are only too willing to buy fancy sets of textbooks without regard to cost. With their "own" funds, they weigh carefully the cost of each potential purchase against the anticipated advantages for their students. A set of texts for an entire class (which can cost over $400) has not been purchased in five years. Usually teachers buy five or six copies for the class. With $178 saved by not purchasing science texts, a resourceful teacher can handsomely furnish an entire science interest area for a classroom. Given a limited but personally controlled budget, many teachers find imaginative ways of scrounging or constructing needed classroom materials without spending a dime. As one anonymous teacher put it,

We have done so much
for so long
with so little,
We are now qualified
to do anything
with nothing.

I remember a kindergarten teacher whose students accidentally broke an expensive 'unbreakable" phonograph record. The next day the pieces appeared in a box as a puzzle, which delighted children tried to assemble. Before teachers controlled their own budgets, $40 bus trips to local places of interest were common. Now the students travel by public transportation – at 10¢ a pupil – and learn something about public services along the way. When hiring a sixty-passenger bus is necessary for a field trip, you can be sure two classes of children will be on board, not a single class of twenty-five. Teachers have too many other uses for "their" money to waste any of it. Only occasionally does scrounging and resourcefulness exceed acceptable limits:

> Item: The milk company is unhappy about losing many of its cases. It seems that frequently fewer are picked up than were left off. They inform us that we will now be charged for any missing cases. Nuf said.
> Roland

No more free cubbies!

Another welcome, if unanticipated, consequence of teachers' controlling their own budgets has been a dramatic cross-fertilization of ideas among the staff. Instructional responsibility, backed by purchasing power, fosters experimentation, discussion, and cooperation by bringing into the school a constant flow of widely assorted new materials, books, and activities, all of which are cheaper if shared. A box of geoblocks costs about $40. Although well worth the price, they represent a sizable fraction of a year's budget. However, if three fourth-grade teachers each contribute $13, their students can use geoblocks about as often as if the blocks "belonged" to one class. When teachers purchase materials together, they have a sense of common ownership that leads to discussion of different uses of the materials and classroom visits to observe children and other teachers using them. "Borrowing," often a contentious practice when teachers are isolated, becomes legitimate, commonplace, and necessary when everyone is trying to stretch budgets:

> **Item: Teachers, could you *please* lend me your staplers next week. It's most important for a project we are doing. I shall be around on Fri-**

> day to collect them. (They should be marked with your name.) Thank you.
>
> Anne DeSalvo

A teacher aide keeps track of teachers' purchases and sends a statement to teachers every month or so, informing them of the balance in their account. Some teachers exhaust their entire budget by February and must borrow from others to get through the year. They repay their loan the following year – learning something about planning from the process. A few underspend, and the surplus reverts to the principal for school-wide items. The librarian, who feels her allocation is insufficient to meet her goals for the library program, annually engages in fund raising. She advises her colleagues that a tithe, 10 percent of their annual budgets, represents a reasonable contribution. Teachers usually chip in, but many give only after securing a blood oath that *their* funds will go toward the library's collection on trains or dinosaurs or other pet classroom projects. Other staff find other ways of hustling the funds they need for their class:

> Item: The PTA Budget Committee will be meeting on Tuesday evening, Sept. 19th, at 7:30. If you would like to come, you are welcome. I urge any of you who will be needing funds for different projects this year to attend. You are your own best advocate.
>
> Roland

Students eagerly participate in class efforts to get the most for the least. For instance, two classes operated a store to help finance a field trip to Philadelphia (which would otherwise have consumed the entire year's budget). The physical education instructor and his students sold school sweatshirts to finance new equipment. One class planned and constructed an elaborate seven-foot reading loft at a total cost of $65 for supplies. These kinds of activities make teachers and students both interdependent and instrumental in running their lives, qualities notoriously absent from many schools.

The school system that fills a classroom with expensive manufactured materials deprives both teachers and students of the opportunity, responsibility, and excitement that comes from identifying needs and securing resources. Foraging materials from trash piles on the way to school or discovering new uses for such old standbys as sand, wood, water, leather, and cardboard promotes a kind of motivation and learning the glossiest multimedia package cannot provide.

To get the instructional materials they need, then, most teachers negotiate this sequence of steps: check other teachers to see if any have and might be willing to lend what is needed; check the curriculum director in the central office to see if the materials might be loaned or purchased by the director; find another teacher willing to share in purchasing the needed materials in exchange for partial use of them; construct the materials from inexpensive available components; encourage students to find the materials at home or in the local library; see if the PTA will contribute funds. Only as a last resort, when many of these steps have been exhausted, do teachers purchase materials from their accounts.

This budget system has had ripple effects that extend far beyond its modest nature. I have found the money I allocate to teachers worth far more than its market value. Teachers' need for instructional materials is immediate, urgent, and specific; the school system's provision of instructional materials is slow and often irrelevant to the need. Money in teachers' hands brings into classrooms what is needed when it is needed. Furthermore, money has symbolic importance for teachers. Money is power, stored energy. Teachers feel the power of being able to get the things they need. Being entrusted with money is a vote of confidence – a confidence I have had no cause to question over the years. In addition to the vote of confidence for teachers, the feeling of importance and instrumentality that accompanies it, and the responsibility and resourcefulness it promotes, the budget system has had a subtle yet extraordinarily pervasive effect upon the professional and personal interdependence of the faculty. Like words in ITEMS, dollars in the budget provide a means of communication and exchange that has brought teachers and good ideas closer together. As one teacher put it: "It helps people sometimes just to give them what they want or think they want." The budget is another common school matter, with uncommon possibilities for the professional development of a faculty.

Promoting Responsibility

It is impossible for one person to run an institution as complex as a public elementary school. The person who attempts to do it all may get control, consistency, and uniformity, but he pays for these successes with ineffectiveness and exhaustion. When the faculty participates fully in operating a school, the results are also mixed: frequent disagreement and a lot of careful juggling are the price of considerable effectiveness and some measure of sanity.

An effective administrator makes sure that *someone* is attending to all the important areas of school life – himself or someone else. I favor someone else. Every principal has strengths and weaknesses and encounters tasks that seem crucial and those that do not. A principal can usually find others who like the things he can't stand, who are strong where he is weak. He can ensure that the administration of the school employs the abilities of all the available personnel. I am convinced that involving many others in the decisions of a school, while time-consuming and tedious, is in everyone's best interest – the administrator's, the faculty's, and the children's.

I have delegated responsibility to teachers for important aspects of school operation by revitalizing those tired old workhorses, the committee and the coordinator. At Angier we have a large and fluctuating number of committees ranging from Audiovisual to Pupil Evaluation to Sex Education to Visitors. This is hardly unusual. Most schools have many committees, generally composed of reluctant members – reluctant because committees tend to be overused and underutilized. Often membership is a frustrating exercise in attending meetings and engaging in unending talk, which turns to conflict whenever a decision must be made. Even if consensus is reached, those who appointed the committee often disregard the hard-fought conclusion, thereby promoting further disappointment and anger.

None of this is inevitable. I have found that committees can encourage collegiality and address important problems of a school – under certain conditions. First, there must be a need or an unsolved problem to generate the committee's existence. A committee on school rules is unnecessary when school rules exist (or don't exist) and are being followed; a committee on student safety is necessary when three children have been injured in automobile and bicycle accidents. Second, committee members should be entrusted with complete responsibility for analyzing the problem and determining its solution. If a committee is going to have a different level of authority such as "recommending to the principal," this should be carefully spelled out before the first meeting and before people agree to serve. If the solution to a problem will require money, the committee should command some funds with no strings attached. Third, committees should be small – one, two, or three members at most. We have found adequate "representation" of a staff of twenty-four requires a committee of twenty-four, so our committees no longer pretend to be representative. Teachers should not be shanghaied onto committees; selection should be made from those who know and care about the problem and are willing to translate their concern into work. If no one cares that much, the need for the committee is questionable. Fourth, teachers should serve on no more than two or three committees. This is easy if committees are transient, abolished when the work is done, and reconstituted only if a problem reemerges. Standing committees generally engage in a lot of standing around. And, finally, if the principal is a member of a committee he must keep his ears open and his mouth shut.

I have found that teachers are quite willing to work on a school problem through the committee structure if a committee is small enough so that each member has an opportunity to influence its deliberations and if members feel the ultimate decision rests with them and not with outside authorities. When responsibility is real, teachers work hard to make real decisions and assume accountability for their decisions, keeping colleagues advised of committee progress:

> Item: As a result of our last meeting, the policy for visitors will be as follows:

(1) Visitors are welcome;
(2) Visitors may come five days a week, with permission in advance;
(3) Morning and afternoon;
(4) Up to ten a day.

Visitors Committee

Item: Re. Fire Drill, October 17, 9:20 A.M. It went well. It became apparent about 25 seconds into the drill that there were several classes confused about where to go once outside. This was caused because the children were not in their homerooms. It might help the special teachers (music, art, library, etc.) if homeroom teachers could review fire drill procedures for rooms their children regularly visit. Special teachers will also have to review this procedure. Congratulations to the kindergarten class caught on the stairs – and to those teachers who helped to straighten out the confusion in the front of the building. In spite of the problems, the time was well within reasonable limits.

Dick Salinger, Fire Marshal [and teacher]

Committees hold open meetings, check out possible solutions with the full faculty, and frequently put alternatives to a vote. The faculty in turn usually accepts and supports decisions made by committees. After all, the effectiveness of each committee depends upon staff acceptance and support. Imaginative solutions to problems frequently emerge. The visitors committee, for instance, wrote a little manual for visitors to the school and trained student guides to conduct tours. This set a welcome tone, eased demands upon secretary and principal, and provided each visitor with a staff list, a map of the school, and a student guide with whom to talk.

In addition to serving on committees, many teachers assume specific school-wide responsibilities as coordinators. The subject-matter coordinators in language arts, math, science, and social studies mediate between the school and the central office, ensure continuity in curriculum, and work toward reducing redundancies and omissions. With a small but personally managed budget and focused responsibility, each coordinator can have considerable influence over a subject-matter area. The primary and intermediate coordinators serve as de facto assistant principals with many planned and ad hoc responsibilities. They assist in the organization of the staff, help with scheduling, chair placement meetings, and hold meetings of their own twice a month with primary or intermediate teachers. And they meet each week with the principal to plan the agenda for faculty meetings.

In the curious society of schools it is often taboo for one teacher to help another. Helping somehow suggests that one is better than the other, that one is competent, the other incompetent. Further, when teachers see each other as competitors, cooperation and mutual aid make no sense at all. Formally appointing coordinators, without saying exactly what they are to do, makes it easy and legitimate for one teacher to help another. It also allows coordinators to do what they feel is most needed. One experienced teacher/coordinator spoke of her strong feelings about offering assistance to teachers new to the school:

> The question of inheritance raised memories of my first few days at school five years ago. There was not one single thing in my room—nothing—although there had been a first grade the previous year. There was nothing usable in the materials that were left. I was handed new Ginn readers, no curriculum guides; as I had never taught I could have used some. I followed the basal reader guide and read it nightly and learned something about reading. Because I knew nothing about math, I made the decision to go to every workshop and spent one afternoon a week in the math coordinator's office at the division. I finally got some help in individualized reading. Because my memories are strong about my need for help as a first-year teacher, as a coordinator I am now making an attempt to help all new teachers, to answer their questions, provide support, and get stuff from the division for them. None of that was there for me.

Another coordinator helps colleagues with "problem children":

> In an emergency, teachers feel free to go to another teacher and say, "Get him [a disturbing child] out of my room." Many come to me. There's always somebody else in the school who can deal with the kid better than an upset teacher could at any one given moment. Children with problems can be shared among the faculty. Some teachers who are disturbed about kids have called me up in the evening. I make suggestions such as, "Have you talked with the parents? Would you like me to sit in on the conferences?" I do not do this with the idea of telling anyone what to do, but rather to find necessary information that would help the teacher and me do a better job with the child. If a teacher just wants to cry on someone's shoulder, there are plenty of people around. Everyone in the school has a buddy they can rely on.

Involvement of teachers as committee members and as coordinators, like ITEMS and the budget, has ripple effects. These formal responsibilities encourage teachers to relate directly, honestly, and frequently with one another over sensitive, conflict-laden issues. Teachers learn that assuming responsibility for school problems frequently means assuming responsibility for one another's problems. One visitor at a primary meeting observed:

> As they went around the table evaluating the placement procedure, one teacher stated she felt hurt about rumors regarding problems in her classroom. Significant to me was the teacher's willingness to share hurt feelings with colleagues. The teacher received sympathetic responses which, in turn, facilitated further examination of some of the complicated issues around placement.

The presence of many coordinators makes it not only acceptable and appropriate but expected that teachers will help one another. In fact, there are so many visible "helping" teachers that the question is more often to whom the problem should be taken than whether help should be sought.

Teacher committees and coordinators also set limits on other teachers, a far more difficult and controversial practice than the institutionalization of mutual help. Both committees and coordinators frequently determine acceptable behavior for teachers. Explicit expectations for teachers from teachers frequently appear in ITEMS:

> Item: We would like to clarify a new library rule. If more than six of your children visit the library at a specific time, in addition to notifying the volunteers you must accompany the group.
>
> Library Committee

Setting limits on one's peers is perilous. Yet when teachers have legitimate authority, sanctioned by principal and faculty, they find the courage to make demands on their colleagues in one instance and to comply with their colleagues' demands on them in another. I find in the ease and frequency with which teachers monitor and set limits on one another evidence of a sophisticated level of faculty relationships and staff development.

Over the years the committee and coordinator systems have passed through several developmental stages. At first there were multiple school-wide problems and, for each problem, conflicts within the staff about solutions. Committees were large and combative. As problems were resolved and teachers began to trust one another, membership on most committees diminished to two or three. Finally, in many instances, a single person became "the committee." Now many committees have lapsed altogether, and vestiges of many previous problems are handled a little bit by everyone, without an appointed monitor.

Nonteaching responsibilities, then, have become a large part of the life of the school and the lives of teachers. In discharging them, teachers have developed within the building an accessible, effective, mutual-support system through which they exchange help with their colleagues. Teachers are taking responsibility for themselves, for a portion of the school, and, perhaps most important, for the well-being of others.

Committees and coordinators have helped break down the isolation of teachers' lives. They have also relieved the principal's isolation. Administrators, like teachers, need accessible, effective support from others. Yet, like teachers, as long as principals make decisions in isolation, they will remain isolated. The only areas of decision making I continue to "control" are the evaluation of pupils and the evaluation of teachers. Even here I frequently seek out advice from committees and individual staff members. Inclusion of teachers in the important decisions of school life has blurred the distinction between administrator and teacher, management and union, superior and subordinate. It has counteracted the role distinctions that debilitate schools and schoolpeople. It is no clearer who runs the school than it is whether a classroom is open or traditional. This meshing of roles has allowed different members of the school community to contribute their strengths, sharing the power, the satisfaction – and the price.

ITEMS, the budget, and the committee/coordinator structure have become important (if sometimes unintended) avenues for staff development. But there are many other activities, growing directly from the needs and experiences of teachers, that contribute to their personal and professional growth. Visits to other schools is one. Teachers tackling a new problem, such as running a mixed-age class, frequently benefit from observing others outside the school who have mastered similar situations. It is easier for teachers in the uncertain, vulnerable position of trying something for the first time to seek and utilize help from those with whom they are not in constant daily contact. We help teachers identify useful classrooms, arrange visits, and find coverage for their classrooms; this continual reexamination pays off in improved practice.

Promoting Self-Examination

Work with student teachers and schools of education also keeps us moving, learning, growing. We are cautious about research in the school, but not negative. If a request from a university researcher seems to be valuable to teachers and students and receives central-office approval, I pass it along to the staff. When teachers choose to participate in research, I find they look afresh at themselves, their students, and their classrooms and gain new insights into practices that may have become habitual.[4] Most projects are modest:

> Students are invited to participate in a study of children's drawing techniques in their own classroom in a session taking an hour to an hour and a half. The children will be provided with drawing materials and asked to draw pictures of certain objects and scenes. Their pictures will be collected and analyzed to advance understanding of how children develop drawing skills. The analysis does not involve the child's personality, self-image, or emotional life; the results will, of course, not be evaluated as part of the child's regular schoolwork. Typical drawing assignments will be: draw a person brushing his teeth; draw a hill with several houses on it; draw a house on the side of a hill with a ball balanced on its roof; draw a happy face and a sad face; draw a group of children standing in a circle holding hands; draw a line of telephone poles along this road (the road is already drawn on the piece of paper the children are given). The results of the study will be shared with the Angier School.

Other proposals from university researchers have been more ambitious and ambiguous:

> We would want to be with you from about mid-February to mid-April. What we do has been evolving somewhat. We go into classrooms partly in the role of teacher aides and partly in that of observers. We do help the teachers in any way they ask us to, so long as it doesn't remove us from the scene of the action. We started out not taking any notes in the classroom and dictating from memory afterwards. But we soon found that in the midst of a busy classroom, no one noticed – or if they did notice, cared – if we took occasional notes – so we began to do that. It is a matter of judgment of course whether or not you are disturbing anyone. If you are, you stop. Up to now we have had wonderful relations with the teachers whose rooms we've been in. They soon discover that we are not part of the system of power which affects them; that we are absolutely close-mouthed about what anyone says to us; and that we are sympathetic listeners. We also have good relations with the kids – too good, on occasion. It's easy to become interested in particular children almost to the point of neglecting what you're really up to.
>
> Always subject to your decisions about what we may and may not do – the thing that makes your school especially interesting is that you have classroom options. I assume the group of parents you draw from is relatively homogeneous social class-wise. And a problem which fascinates me is: what differentiates children in more and less formal classrooms? (You probably have some damned good hypotheses about it by now.) I'd like to try to find out what differentiates them – and that might entail interviewing some parents.
>
> It is also interesting to think about the organizational problems of a school with options. What about the relations among teachers having different pedagogical views?
>
> The problem has some interesting implications. For instance, we are helping a new town to plan its educational system. And the question has been raised: what will happen if we put different educational options, each embodied in a small school, next to each other in an educational park? Would that be better, worse, or no different from separating them spatially?
>
> What we do mainly is spend time in classrooms; write up field notes; attend all school functions, since we like to know how the governance works, how the parents participate, how teachers work together, if they do, what the role of the aides is; how the district environment affects the school. We also interview as many different types of participants in the system as we can. Always with their consent, of course.
>
> Finally something we have gotten into and would like to pursue is a brief four-question, five-minute private interview with pupils in which we get sociometric data (Who are your best friends in the class?) and self-concept of ability data. We have two hypotheses. They are formulated "in favor" of the open classroom; but we are really neutral. (1) Peer groups are more flexible in the open classroom and less influenced by outside factors. Thus,

> you'd expect to find more cross-sex, cross-social class, and cross-ethnic choices in 'open' than in 'traditional' classrooms. (2) Self-concept of ability is higher in the open than in the traditional classroom because there is less exposure of the self to public competition.

Ready access to the numerous colleges in the Boston area encourages teachers to enroll in graduate courses and pursue their own research projects, often making use of their opportunity to work with children and other teachers. Work in pre-service and in-service teacher training also has a powerful effect on teachers' professional development, which typically goes through several stages. Initially, of course, teachers take courses, practice teach, and learn the craft of teaching; then they assume positions as teachers and learn a great deal more from conducting their own classes. The next level in this developmental progression, seldom available to many teachers, is helping others become teachers—or become better teachers. Coordinators do this with our own staff, but teachers learn in new and particularly enriching ways when they work with colleagues outside the building.

Each year we at Angier contract with Brandeis University to cooperate in their undergraduate teacher-certification program. About a dozen students are placed with as many of our teachers. Student and teacher work together for several months; inevitably they come to know more about teaching, about each other, and about themselves. Bright student teachers examine, question, and challenge experienced teachers' educational ideas and practices, causing those teachers to examine, defend, and rethink what they do.

In addition to classroom training we run Brandeis Seminars, which help student teachers learn instructional methodology and theory. Each year I appoint a committee of teachers, paid by Brandeis, to lead these seminars. They, in turn, engage a considerable portion of the staff as faculty for the seminars. A variety of topics are covered: discipline, observing children, record keeping, curriculum, and—that riveting subject—getting a teaching job. Teachers have also assisted other teachers through the former Greater Boston Teacher Center, which used to offer faculty-led workshops and courses on a wide variety of topics for teachers in the Boston area. A committee of faculty assumed responsibility for planning and offering one of these courses each year.

In these situations teachers are paid to share what they know with prospective or practicing teachers. Remuneration conveys to teachers several important messages: "We are aware of the many good things you are doing; we value these things; we feel others would benefit from knowing what you are thinking and doing; we feel strongly enough about this and value your expertise enough so that we will pay you to share it." These messages, so seldom communicated to classroom teachers, affirm their importance, dignity, and accomplishment. When teachers receive this kind of recognition, they go to extraordinary lengths to justify it. They reflect on their practice, translating intuitive and unconscious behavior into more conscious, deliberate information that can be useful to others. And, of course, this process feeds back into improved classroom practice for the teachers themselves.

Teacher Evaluation

Most teachers welcome classroom observers who can diagnose instructional problems and offer helpful suggestions. Often a teacher will invite an outsider to observe for a specific purpose, perhaps to react to a new laboratory method of teaching science or a new grouping practice in reading, or to observe a misbehaving child. The teacher and observer experience the same events and can talk in a friendly way about what they have witnessed. The burden of judgment is off the teacher, and the burden of judging is off the visitor. Teachers who seek out this kind of assistance from other teachers, friends, coordinators, and sometimes even parents and principals, have already taken important steps toward professional growth. Consequently, the observation is likely to be profitable. Unfortunately, informal observation is rarely taken seriously in public elementary schools; formal, involuntary evaluation of teachers by principals and other supervisors is considered the primary means of promoting professional staff development. It is not clear to me why.

Studies of teacher evaluation and supervision have been reported for a half century. It is an interesting literature. At first, teachers were evaluated according to the success of their students at the next level of schooling or by proficiency examinations. Then attempts were made to measure teacher performance against some absolute model of "good teaching." The frequent futility of these efforts next led researchers to examine interactions between teacher, learner, and learning environment. Evaluators armed with lists would check off how frequently the teacher spoke, how frequently children moved from their seats, whether children were solving problems posed by books, by the teacher, or by children themselves. More recently, studies of teacher evaluation have focused on the relation between a specific teaching style and the specific learning styles of students. Now, as the inexorable cycle comes around again, attention has returned to evaluation of teachers through measures of student achievement.

Newton, like most school systems, has an official form used annually for evaluating nontenured teachers. Because over 80 percent of our teachers are now tenured, the system is also beginning systematic evaluation of tenured teachers. This formal evaluation has several familiar components. First, I observe in the classroom two or three times. Before each visit the teacher and I share ideas and afterward observations and more ideas. Then we each fill out the official form (shown in Appendix

G), commenting on work in the different subject areas and on relationships with parents, other teachers, and children. After that we bring the two sets of forms, reflecting our separate perceptions, to another conference. I am always particularly interested in discrepancies in our perceptions. I find few. When I point out difficulties or strengths I have observed, I usually find the teachers are also well aware of them. In fact, I have often found the teachers more exacting and more insightful than their evaluators. The last step is to incorporate both sets of observations into a final report, which goes to the personnel office with a recommendation for reappointment.

In theory, formal evaluation of teachers by principals and other supervisors is a powerful means of promoting professional growth. Many principals use it as an effective means of improving teacher performance. There have been many instances where I have been able to do so—especially where teachers were pushing toward their own goals for change and I was attempting to assist them. On balance, though, my feeling is that formal evaluation has only a limited influence upon staff development. Its possibilities remain largely unfulfilled. Indeed, supervision often approaches a meaningless ritual. Or, even worse, it becomes the recurring occasion to heighten anxiety and distance between teacher and principal. Conflicts and inconsistencies inherent in the supervisory process, a confusion of goals, and the ambiguity and inconsistency of methods, all tend to limit the potential usefulness of formal supervision as a growth-producing process. Let me share some of the problems.[5]

First, there is a conflict of *role*. Formal supervision and evaluation take place under a cloud of retention or dismissal that frequently restricts possibilities for teacher growth. The question of reappointment has assumed a larger and larger place in formal supervision for two reasons. Only a few years ago a school was lucky to find anyone at all to fill a vacancy. Today an abundance of highly qualified teachers wait in the wings to fill the place of incompetent or undistinguished practitioners. Additionally, because of the precipitous decline in enrollment of elementary-school-age students, the number of teaching positions is also declining. Some schools have been able to cut staff as teachers retire and resign. But many systems must make an involuntary reduction in force. The most common criterion to emerge has been "last hired, first fired," which leads, sadly, to the dismissal of many young, energetic, and capable teachers and removes from schools some of their most important agents of staff renewal and invigoration.

The school principal, the person designated by most systems to help teachers grow, is the same person required to judge, to evaluate, and to "terminate" ineffective or surplus teachers. It is as though a priest who listens to transgressions is also made to serve as a policeman, charged with apprehending and punishing those who transgress. It is difficult for anyone to fill both roles simultaneously. Yet the principal, who holds the power of terminating professional life, is nonetheless expected to promote professional growth.

Second, there is a conflict of *purpose* – or rather of purposes. The supervisory process is supposed to change the behavior of teachers, to help each become more effective professionally. One might expect, therefore, that everything that occurs within the supervisory process supports the personal and professional growth of the teacher, complying with the criterion: "How is what we are doing now helping the teacher or going to help the teacher become better?" If these objectives are realized, why do so many teachers see supervision as something to endure, something done *to* them, rather than *for* them or *with* them? Don't teachers want to become better?

In fact, of course, supervision has multiple purposes, few of them related to teacher development and growth. Supervision is often used to induce teachers to adhere to a prescribed curriculum or comply with a supervisor's expectations, an intent diametrically opposed to individually defined professional growth. Supervision is frequently organized around the needs of the school system to assemble a competent staff; to determine who shall be hired, rehired, promoted, granted tenure, or dismissed; and to convince taxpayers and school committees that the system enforces rigorous expectations and is getting the most from its employees.

Evaluation and supervision also serve the particular needs of principals. For some, supervision is a means of maintaining authority and control over teachers. For some it is an opportunity to be accepted and liked – to break down the distance between teachers and administrators. For others, examination of teacher practice is a means of earning respect for expertise. And, for many principals, the overriding concern during the evaluation process is to avoid conflict – to perform an unpleasant, demanding task as quickly and inoffensively as possible. That is why many principals' evaluations of teachers – like teachers' evaluations of pupils – are milquetoast. They have no sharp edges, distress no one, and settle the stomach.

Just as children's needs in school seem to be attended only when adults' needs have been met, so teachers' needs in school systems are often attended only when those of their superiors have been met. The needs of the system and the supervisor compete with and frequently obscure the most important purpose of supervision: to help teachers become more effective. When students evaluate teachers, their interests are taken more seriously. Perhaps one way of establishing the primacy of teachers in the supervisory process might be to have them periodically evaluate their supervisors. Appendix H shows an instrument that makes this attempt.

Personal relationships also interfere with the supervisory process.

Despite what we may say, just as teachers like some of their pupils more than others, so principals enjoy some of their teachers more than others. How principal and teacher feel about each other has a powerful impact on the supervisory process. Is it possible to help someone you don't respect? I don't think so. Who helps the supervisor face and resolve feelings of frustration, anger, and hostility toward some members of the staff? Usually no one.

Effective supervision begins with an agreement that the only things that happened are what both teacher and principal agree happened. But this consensus of reality often fails to materialize. Neither principal nor teacher can detach themselves from the personal feelings and prejudices that color judgments. It is as difficult to see clearly the strengths of a person you dislike as to see clearly weaknesses in someone you like very much. Thus, many supervisory relationships deteriorate into warm hand-holding or cold acrimony – or into vacant motions of helping and being helped.

Values are at the root of a fourth area of inevitable supervisory conflict. I appreciate differences in teacher behavior if I feel they contribute to effective teaching. Still, like most supervisors, I appreciate some practices more than others. I find it neither possible nor honest to attempt to be unbiased and value free. If I allow and encourage teachers to practice their craft, employing educational means that they determine themselves, I find myself asking where do *I* stand? What is my own position on the important questions of instruction – on ability grouping, on individualized or group instruction, on teacher-directed or more student-centered classes, on desks in rows or interest areas? Or, to put it more personally, is there a second grade among the variety of second grades in which I would prefer my daughter to be placed? The principal who determines and enforces uniformity clearly takes a stand. There is a certain openness and honesty, if perhaps controversy, about making positions explicit. The principal who values diversity, on the other hand, has complex value problems to resolve. He is only a step away from valuing everything, and therefore nothing – of being an administrator/manager, a facilitator perhaps, but not an educator. How much of my own positions do I reveal to teachers and inject into the supervision process? What is the consequence for me and for teachers of making my positions explicit? Would such revelation enhance or inhibit the development of each teacher's philosophy? Would my position have a different effect upon teachers who agree with me than on those with whom I often disagree? These questions trouble me.

Implicit in the very act of observing is selecting, judging. To be effective we must know who we are and be clear about what we believe. How do supervisors become conscious and sure of their own values? How do we know what teachers' values are? How often do we assume teachers' values are compatible with our own when they are not; and how often do we assume that teachers' values are incompatible with ours when they are very much alike? When the values of teacher and principal are incompatible, should the supervisor try to change the teacher – whose actions may be thoughtful, consistent, and valued by others (children and parents, for instance)? Where is the line between supporting teachers in developing their own values and styles and projecting one's own values upon teachers? We as supervisors must begin to answer these extremely complex questions before formulating specific ideas about what we expect of teachers.

Finally, the supervisory process is marred by conflicts of *expectation*, the desire to maintain a relationship that combines social comfort with growth. Supervisors and supervisees spend much time together and want that time to be pleasant and free of conflict. It rarely works out that way. Learning can be joyous, but a process like supervision also involves hard insight and painful growth. Comfort is not a realistic expectation for a supervisory relationship. If principal and teacher role play their relationship, remaining objective and detached, they can perhaps insulate themselves from risk and pain – and from growth. Active engagement in supervision, as in any relationship, makes risk and pain inevitable. Nonetheless, the more one risks pain, failure, self-revelation, embarrassment, and judgment, the more competent one becomes in dealing with these difficult emotions. And the more one grows. Pain must not be wished away; it should be acknowledged and accepted by supervisor and supervisee alike.

Conflicts of this sort haunt formal efforts to supervise and evaluate teachers. They have diminished the success of supervisory relationships for me, and I suspect for others as well. Somehow, we will have to come to grips with these ambiguities if supervision and evaluation of teachers is ever to become a major force in promoting their professional growth.

Independence Training

I think of staff development in two ways, as the professional growth of individual teachers and the professional growth of a faculty. For both, my goal has been the same: independence training. The biggest problem besetting schools is the primitive quality of human relationships among children, parents, teachers, and administrators. Many schools perpetuate infantilism. School boards infantilize superintendents; superintendents, principals; principals, teachers; and teachers, children. The result is children and adults who frequently behave like infants, complying with authority out of fear or dependence, waiting until someone's back is turned to do something "naughty." Some systems have so thoroughly infantilized principals that many feel the need to clear every minor action with some higher authority; many teachers want principals to monitor every detail of their teaching, if only to relieve them of responsibility if things go wrong; and, of course, many children need teachers to direct their every move. Schoolpeople are badly in need of independence training.

The self-actualization of teachers is not a goal of schools because it appears to be unrelated to pupil achievement and literacy skills. I would argue that the self-actualization of teachers *ought* to be a goal of schools – not only because it enriches the lives of teachers, but because it also enriches the academic and personal lives of their students. To the extent that teachers can become responsible for their own teaching, they can help children become responsible for their own learning. One teacher put it this way:

> In the beginning, I did what I was told. I went by the book and planned every minute of every day for every child. Now I believe in the ability of children to do much for themselves. My job is to provide an enormous number of fruitful possibilities for them.

Just as independence training of individual teachers is enormously important to schools, so is independence training vital to a school faculty. A faculty becomes independent by becoming interdependent. A school should never become dependent on one adult to hold it together. A school may be a house of cards, a fragile interrelated social network, but principals who feel they cannot leave "their" building because they are certain something is going to go wrong are in trouble. They overestimate their own importance and demean their staff. There are always people around a school – usually several – who can make things work at least as well as the principal. The benefits to schools of interdependence are as important as they are to schoolpeople. Moeller and Mahan have shared research which demonstrates that

> members of groups who are strongly committed to common goals, who enjoy high peer-group loyalty, who express favorable attitudes between superiors and subordinates, and who demonstrate a high level of skill and interaction can clearly achieve far more than the same people acting as an aggregation of individuals.*

A school should be, above all else, a community of learners. Principals learn. Teachers learn. Parents learn. Student teachers learn. Visitors learn. And to the degree that they learn, students also learn. But the professional development of individual teachers is more than a means toward the end of delivering services to children and to society. It is also an end in itself. Schools are places to assist in the growth of *people*. Teachers are people, and their personal and professional growth is as legitimate a concern of schools as is the cognitive and affective growth of children. If we can help teachers figure out where they stand, and if they can stand there with dignity, security, satisfaction, and competence, then everyone benefits. Indeed, when a teacher becomes self-critical, self-monitoring, self-evaluative, and self-confident, there is little need for formal evaluation, or for supervision.

Lortie found that in the eyes of most teachers learning, success, and satisfaction came largely from students within their classrooms and that "*all* other persons [parents, the principal, colleagues] without exception, were connected with undesirable occurrences . . . Other adults have potential for hindrance but not for help."[7] This need not be so. Newsletters, budgets, committees, coordinators, and work with student teachers and fellow professionals all expand the realm of satisfying "others" and lead toward fruitful interdependence and adult independence. These kinds of activities relieve loneliness, emancipate teachers from dependence upon any single person within the hierarchy, and enable individual teachers to pose their own goals and enlist others to help attain them. For these reasons, I suspect, I have found that informal, indirect, modest activities—taken collectively—have a far greater capacity to stimulate personal and professional growth in teachers than more elaborate, direct attempts at formal staff development. In the final analysis, professional growth stems not from deliberate attempts to train teachers, but from a school culture that is adult, supportive, professional, cooperative, and humane.

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Andragogy and Development: A Search for the Meaning of Staff Development

An understanding of adult learning principles will enable staff developers to select the most appropriate learning environment for participants.

TESFATSION DALELLEW
YVONNE MARTINEZ

What exactly is staff development? This article is the result of our search for an answer to this question. We began by dissecting the two operational words "staff" and "development", and then arrived at what we will term an andragogical construct of adult growth using a variety of developmental learning environments.

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Andragogy and Pedagogy

The Adult Staff

In many school systems, "staff" refers to the group of people who work directly with instruction, and staff development activities are often targeted for teachers and paraprofessionals. There are, however, administrators, social workers, secretaries, custodians, bus drivers, food services personnel, security, and various other people who are also "staff" and are an integral part of the total organization.

Although the diversity of a district staff is overwhelming, they all have two things in common: (a) they work for the same organization, and (b) they are adults. It may seem obvious, but each member of an adult staff needs to be considered from a perspective that is different from the way in which we consider children. Staff members should be provided development opportunities based upon adult learning theory, better known as andragogy.

The Adult Learner

Knowles (1980) has distinguished between traditional pedagogy and androgogy, an innovative approach to adult learning. The Greek etymological definitions of "pedagogy" and "andragogy" can be seen as *ped*, meaning child; *aner*, meaning man; and *gogius*, meaning guide. Knowles does not judge one learning paradigm to be better then the other. They are both on a continuum; one for children, the other for adults. Educators must find the point on the continuum which best suits the individual learner.

Knowles outlined not only the social-emotional-cognitive framework of how andragogy differs from pedagogy, he also offered viable suggestions as to how this philosophical construct would transfer into real-life learning situations. The five principle characteristics involved in adult learning and a comparison of those characteristics to the pedagogy of children are displayed in Figure 1 and also discussed here.

1. **Concept of the Learner.** In pedagogy, the learner is dependent upon the teacher for the learning. The idea of "sitting at the feet of the master" is highlighted in this role. Adult learners differ significantly in that their learning may be self-directed. The impetus for learning is to share information, to generate one's own need for learning.

2. **Orientation to Learning.** Adult learning in problem-centered. Knowledge may not be acquired for its own sake, but may be for immediate application in solving a problem. Adults seek knowledge that applies to their current life situation; they want to know how this new information will help them in their development.

3. **Role of the Learner.** Adult learners carry a whole host of life experiences which shape their readiness for learning.

These life experiences influence the assumptions adults have about learning and about life in general. Their "world view" is crystalized and not easily changed. Children, on the other hand, are more malleable and have had limited life-experiences; their assumptions about life are still being shaped.

4. **Readiness for Learning.** Levinson (1978) and Sheehy (1974) assert that adults follow a pattern of transitional phases which influence their whole entire structure and perspective. Staff developers must be cognizant of each adult learner's developmental phase.

5. **Motivation.** According to many adult learning theorists such as Cross (1981), Knox (1977) and Schlossberg (1984), adults are most generally motivated by internal forces; "dragging" them into learning situations does not ensure absorption of knowledge. Staff who voluntarily attend inservices, workshops, and seminars usually are those who have determined that they want to learn more. Adults may be forced to attend staff development activities, but the internal motivation to listen, learn, and integrate may not be there.

People involved in planning and implementing staff development programs are too often coming from a pedagogical mind-set, as their experience as classroom teachers would naturally dictate. It is crucial that staff developers readjust that mind-set and view adult staff members from an andragogical perspective.

Adult Learning Environments

A Definition of Adult Development

When analyzing individual, organizational, and community development models, there are several dominant development characteristics. The underlying philosophical framework for adult development has several key assumptions:

- Participants assess their own needs
- Facilitators and participants decide upon the resources and type of learning activities which are needed to meet the needs identified
- Participants evaluate whether or not the need has been met
- Facilitators empower participants by providing opportunities for them to become facilitators for others
- Development activities can meet a variety of needs, from personal to professional

Bryant and White (1982) more succinctly state that, "Development as a process of increasing people's capacity to determine their future means that people need to be included in the process — they need to participate" (p. 205).

All too often, educational systems employ the relief and rehabilitation models and call it development. Relief models are usually programs designed by the school district to meet an immediate need within the organization. This cure is generally given to a staff member who has some direct involvement with instruction: a teacher who has trouble with discipline or a paraprofessional who needs to plan for small groups more effectively.

A staff development specialist may be sent in to show the teacher how to "do it right", leaving the teacher to his or her own resources. In more enlightened programs, the rehabilitation model is used. An instructional specialist may make several follow-up visits and suggest a variety of specialized programs for the teacher to attend (e.g., Magic Circle, Conflict Management, Effective Schools, ITIP, Cooperative Learning, Process Writing).

In the development model, the staff member must be given the opportunity to identify his or her own need areas, given the resources to address those needs, allowed time to implement and integrate the learning, encouraged to evaluate the value of the learning, and provided opportunities to facilitate that entire process with his or her peers.

People involved in planning and implementing staff development programs are too often coming from a pedagogical mind-set, as their experience as classroom teachers would naturally dictate. It is crucial that staff developers readjust that mind-set and view adult staff members from an andragogical perspective.

While professional advancement goals support the core of any staff development program, many adult development specialists (e.g., Brookfield, 1987; Freire, 1986; Knowles, 1980, 1984) believe that personal growth is also important to the individual adult's total learning process. School systems often have a propensity for focusing upon training/retraining (we call it "trenching/re-trenching") with the idea that the district will identify teachers' weaknesses, provide a solution, and even evaluate whether or not the weakness has been eradicated.

Figure 1

The Learning Continuum

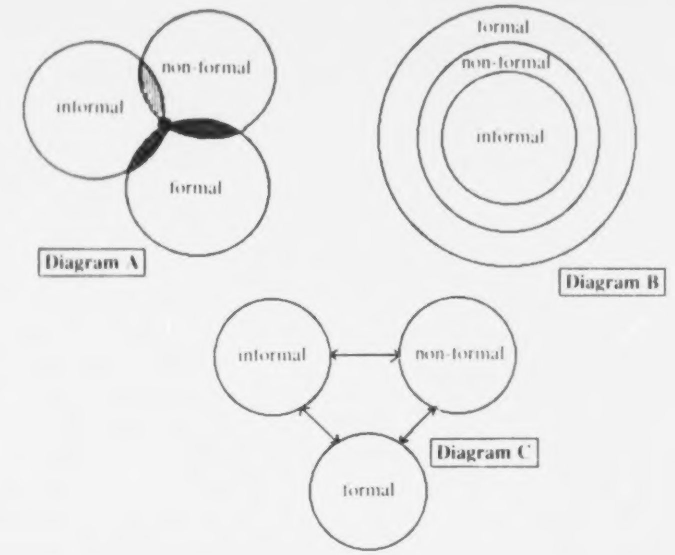
	Andragogy	Pedagogy
Concept of the Learner	Self-directed learning	Dependent learning
Orientation to learning	Problem-solving focus	Subject matter focus
Role of the Learner	Value of learner's experiences	Value of teacher's experiences
Readiness for Learning	Developmentally appropriate tasks	Chronological age, appropriate tasks
Motivation	Internal incentives	External rewards or punishments

Learning Frameworks

Developmental theorists such as Coombs and Ahmed (1974), Dejene (1980), Freire (1985, 1986), LaBelle (1975), Paulston (1972), and Ward and Dettoni (1974) state that individuals learn within informal, formal, and non-formal learning frameworks. Figure 2 shows how these three learning frameworks function dynamically. In diagram A, some theorists believe that each mode is a specific entity, intersecting at infrequent intervals (Dejene, 1980). In diagram B, each is a subset of the other (Paulston, 1972). In diagram C, there is a natural dynamic between the three modes, all inter-related and interdependent (Ward & Dettoni, 1974).

> ***Many adult development specialists believe that personal growth is also important to the individual adult's total learning process.***

Figure 2
Learning Frameworks



Informal Education. Socialization is the primary process for informal learning. It is not planned or structured by sequential limits; it is the broad array of learning which facilitates an individual in becoming a functioning member of society. People learn from parents and peers without specific outcomes. How people learn appropriate behavior, language, and manners all happen rather naturally. Informal learning is value-laden with social, political, and spiritual overtones and a sense of traditional order that is passed from one generation to the next.

In the context of our educational system, there exists an enduring organizational culture. Within the total scope of staff development, informal education cannot be ignored as an integral part of an adult's life. Staff development programs should encourage and foster a positive environment for this informal education to take place; adults have a real need to interact laterally with one another without a pre-set goal in mind.

Formal Education. Most people equate formal education with schooling. It is planned, staffed, and financially supported with specific as well as general anticipated outcomes. There is much to be said for the benefits of formal schooling, especially in a society so dependent upon credentials.

In the context of adult development, educators are more concerned with the methods of instructional delivery than with the structure of the formal system. There are several inherent weaknesses in the way in which formal delivery is administered, especially in light of what we know about adult learners. these weaknesses include:

- The teacher teaches and participants are taught
- The teacher thinks and the participants are the subjects into which this thinking is "deposited" (Freire, 1985)
- The teacher selects the content of the learning and the participants adapt, without being consulted
- The teacher believes that authority of knowledge conflicts with this formal position of authority

Unfortunately, many staff development programs for adults use the same methodology believed to be effective for children. Staff development programs, workshops, or seminars should be conducted based on instructional techniques appropriate for adults.

Many educators have attended staff development sessions where they sit for hours listening to a speaker. As a result of this experience, teachers may leave feeling empty or cheated. They have not been given time to participate in their own learning, to discuss their experiences in light of the topic, to feel appreciated for being there, or empowered to share their learning with others. That scenario happens too frequently because presenters often do not understand the importance of adjusting the delivery to meet the needs of adult learners.

Non-Formal Education. Non-formal learning environments are intended to provide opportunities for participants to decide upon the activities they want to develop or attend. Instructional activities for non-formal education may be:

- Outside the formal school setting

- Structured while focusing on short-term skill building within a flexible curriculum that can meet the learner at his or her level of development
- Autonomous from much external control because its form and structure will change to meet the need of the participant
- Intended to create participant awareness
- Designed to stress the characteristics of development (e.g., recognizing and appreciating the "wisdom of the participant," respecting cultural values and norms, and empowering participants to take on leadership roles)

Figure 3
Learning Environments

1. **Informal Learning Environment**
   - **A. Purpose:** To foster a community spirit through the process of social activities: not specifically related to job issues.
   - **B. Sample Activities:** After-school get-togethers with seasonal themes; guest lectures using district personnel; film nights; arranging tours for concerts, the theater, sporting events and art and science museums (participant funded); providing information on city events for adults and children.
2. **Formal Learning Environment**
   - **A. Purpose:** To provide activities which directly correlate with district instructional and curricular objectives: can be generated by staff members themselves.
   - **B. Sample Activities:** Workshops and staff development programs addressing specific purposes on instruction (e.g., Instructional Theory Into Practice), curriculum (e.g., Process Writing, Reading, Cultural Awareness, Sc[illegible] Math, etc.), or school clima[illegible] Effective Schools); university classes for degree programs.
3. **Non-Formal Learning Environment**
   - **A. Purpose:** To provide opportunities for participants to decide upon the activities they want to develop or attend; to provide activities for staff which may or may not correlate specifically to district instructional & curricular objectives. Consider these activities as viable as those sponsored in the formal learning environment.
   - **B. Sample Activities:** Staff development programs and workshops in a variety of theme topics either generated by staff or offered by the district; participation in civic projects; symposiums on travel, gardening, leisure, crafts, finances, retirement, etc., extension classes at community colleges, universities, or community centers; wellness programs.

> ***Perhaps the major lesson we can learn from adult development theory is that the vertical relationship traditionally fostered by a bureaucratic environment can and should be redesigned by staff development programs to include a more horizontal and community-oriented approach.***

The concept of empowerment is crucial to non-formal development. It is a term which has recently been widely used in the effective schools movement. Unfortunately, people who have power often give responsibility to others but tenaciously withhold real power. The true spirit of empowerment is to establish a process and foster an environment where control of development is turned over to participants.

Staff development can be very instrumental in the empowerment process; staff can be encouraged to pursue their own developmental agenda through a variety of self-determined activities. Research indicates that most teachers don't want to become administrators, they simply want to be recognized, acknowledged, and used for the expertise they do have (Devaney, 1987).

Recommendations

The use of all three learning environments can help ensure an effective staff development program. Figure 3 displays guidelines and suggested activities that may be useful when establishing comprehensive staff development for adults.

A synthesized approach to staff development is congruent with adult learning and development theory. The key words are flexibility, participation, and empowerment. Perhaps the major lesson we can learn from adult development theory is that the vertical relationship traditionally fostered by a bureaucratic environment can and should be redesigned by staff development programs to include a more horizontal and community-oriented approach.

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Staff Development and the Process of Teacher Change

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ABSTRACT: This article presents a model that describes the process of teacher change, particularly through staff development programs. The model suggests a temporal sequence of events that is hypothesized to typify the process from staff development to enduring change in teachers' perceptions and attitudes. Research evidence supporting the model is summarized and the conditions under which change might be facilitated are described. Several principles for enhancing the change process to improve staff development efforts are also outlined.

High quality staff development is a central component in nearly every proposal for improving education. Because teachers today remain in their positions for longer periods of time, and fewer new teachers enter the field, improvements in our schools will clearly require enhancement of the professional skills of present staff members.

The proposed staff development programs vary widely in context and format, yet they generally share a common purpose. Specifically, staff development programs are designed to "alter the professional practices, beliefs, and understanding of school persons toward an articulated end" (Griffin, 1983, p. 2). In most cases, that end is the improvement of student learning. In other words, staff development programs are a systematic attempt to bring about change—change in the classroom practices of teachers, change in their beliefs and attitudes, and change in the learning outcomes of students.

This article presents a perspective on the nature of these three areas of change and the conditions under which they take place. It examines the order of occurrence of these change events and how specific types of change might be facilitated and sustained. A model for viewing change in teachers is proposed in hopes of clarifying aspects of that change process. In addition, the implications of this model for the practice of staff development are considered in light of current research.

Historical Context

Staff development efforts in American schools can be traced to the initiation of the Teacher Institutes in the early 19th century (Richey, 1957). But instead of a history characterized by steady progress based on advances in our knowledge and understanding, the history of staff development is characterized primarily by disorder, conflict, and criticism.

Nearly every major work on the topic of staff development has emphasized the failings of these efforts. For example, Corey (1957) stressed that while there was strong evidence of a growing need for continuing professional development among school persons, it was also apparent that "much of what goes for inservice education is uninspiring and ineffective" (p. 1). Davies (1967) offered an even stronger condemnation in his testimony before the Senate Subcommittee on Education. He concluded, "Inservice education is the slum of American education—disadvantaged, poverty stricken, neglected, psychologically isolated, riddled with exploitation, broken promises, and conflict" (cited in Rubin, 1971, p. 38).

In recent years, advances in research on effective schools and the variables that contribute to instructional effectiveness have increased attention on the need for high quality staff development programs (see, e.g., Bloom, 1976; Brophy, 1979; McDonald & Elias, 1976; Medley, 1977). However, relatively few such programs have been forthcoming. In fact, as recently as 1983, Howey and Vaughan described the current practice of staff development as

> . . . a potentially well-supported (in terms of resources) enterprise that is fragmented, not frequently engaged in on a continuing basis by practitioners, not regarded very highly as it is practiced, and rarely assessed in terms of teacher behavior and student learning outcomes (p. 97).

Other reports by Flanders (1980), Harris, Bessent, and McIntyre (1969), Howey and Joyce (1978), Lawrence (1974), McLaughlin and Marsh (1978), Rubin (1978), Wagstaff and McCullough (1973), and

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Wood and Thompson (1980) have been equally dismal.

Undoubtedly a variety of factors contribute to the ineffectiveness of most staff development efforts. However, it could be hypothesized that the majority of programs fail because they do not take into account two critical factors: what motivates teachers to engage in staff development, and the process by which change in teachers typically takes place.

Although it is true that teachers are usually "required" by certification or contractual agreements to take part in various forms of staff development, most teachers engage in staff development because *they want to become better teachers*. Staff development is generally seen as one of the most promising and most readily available routes to growth on the job (Fullan, 1982). Not only is it a way to combat boredom and alienation, but it also presents a pathway to increased competence and greater professional satisfaction.

The Rand Corporation's Change Agent Study showed clearly that teachers participate in staff development activities primarily because they believe such activities will help them to become better teachers. Extrinsic rewards such as extra pay were found to have no effect on teachers' motivation toward staff development (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978).

How is becoming a better teacher defined? For the vast majority of teachers, becoming a better teacher means enhancing the learning outcomes of their students. McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) report that, "A primary motivation for teachers to take on extra work and other personal costs of attempting change is the belief that they will become better teachers and *their students will benefit*" (p. 75).

Similarly, Harootunian and Yargar (1980) found in their study of teachers' perceptions of success that "regardless of teaching level, most teachers define their success in terms of their pupils' behaviors and activities, rather than in terms of themselves or other criteria" (p. 4). Lortie (1975) found the same to be true in his study of teachers in Five Towns.

Clearly, teachers are attracted to staff development programs because they believe these activities can potentially expand their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth, and enhance their effectiveness with students. But it is also clear that teachers carry with them to staff development programs a very pragmatic orientation. What they hope to gain through staff development programs are specific, concrete, and practical ideas that directly relate to the day-to-day operation of their classrooms.

Studies have shown that staff development activities undertaken in isolation from teachers' ongoing classroom responsibilities seldom have much impact on teaching practices or student learning (Doyle & Ponder, 1977; Zigarmi, Betz, & Jensen, 1977). Therefore, to be effective, a staff development program must offer teachers practical ideas that can be efficiently used to directly enhance desired learning outcomes in students.

A second important factor that many staff development programs fail to consider is related to the *process of teacher change*. Staff development efforts frequently attempt to first initiate some form of change in the beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions of teachers (Fullan, 1982; Harris, 1980). For example, many staff developers try to change teachers' beliefs about certain aspects of teaching or the desirability of a particular curriculum or instructional innovation. They presume that such a change in teachers' beliefs and atitudes will lead to specific changes in their classroom behaviors and practices which, in turn, will result in improved student learning.

This perspective on teacher change evolved largely from a model developed by early change theorists such as Lewin (1935), who derived many of his ideas about affecting change from psychotherapeutic models. But current research on teacher change indicates that the assumptions of this model may be inaccurate, at least under the special conditions of staff development for experienced teachers. An alternative model that reexamines the process of teacher change under these special conditions is necessary, therefore, to guide the development of more effective staff development programs.

An Alternative Model

As mentioned earlier, the three major outcomes of staff development are change in the classroom practices of teachers, change in their beliefs and attitudes, and change in the learning outcomes of students. Of particular importance to the change process and to efforts to facilitate change, however, is the order of occurrence of these outcomes. In what temporal sequence do these outcomes most frequently occur?

The relationship among these outcomes is detailed and very complex. In addition, the numerous factors that operate to influence each tend to snarl the change process (Fullan, 1982). Still, staff development is a purposeful endeavor. It is a deliberate activity generally undertaken with specific purposes or goals in mind. The changes a staff developer wishes to bring about can usually be well-defined (Griffin, 1983). Thus, while the relationship among these outcomes is undoubtedly reciprocal to some degree, efforts to facilitate change *must* consider the order of outcomes most likely to result in desired change and the endurance of that change.

Staff development programs based on the assumption that change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes comes first typically emphasize the importance of gaining some sense of commitment from teachers initially. That is, activities are planned specifically to alter the beliefs and attitudes of teachers prior to the implementation of a new program or innovation. Often this is done by involving teachers in planning sessions or by surveying teachers to ensure that the program is aligned with their stated needs (Joyce, McNair, Diaz, & McKibbin, 1976).

Certainly teachers should have input in the planning and development of new programs. Their experience and expertise are a valuable resource that should not be ignored. But teacher participation in program planning is not always possible, particularly on a large scale (Dawson, 1981; Gersten & Guskey, 1985; Hood & Blackwell, 1980). Furthermore, although these activities may make certain programs or innovations a bit more palatable to some teachers, they seldom result in significant attitude change or strong commitment from the majority of teachers (Jones & Hayes, 1980).

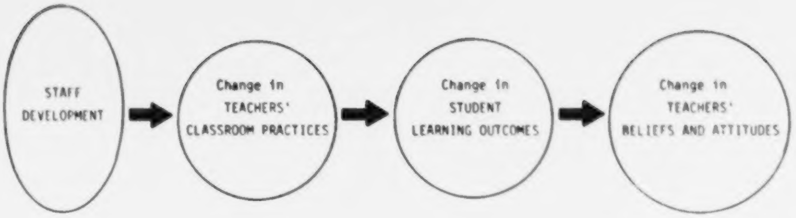
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Change in TEACHERS' CLASSROOM PRACTICES
Change in STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES
Change in TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES

FIGURE 1. *A Model of the Process of Teacher Change.*

An alternative perspective on the teacher change process is illustrated in Figure 1. The model in this figure suggests a different temporal sequence among the three major outcomes of staff development. According to the model, significant change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes is likely to take place only *after* changes in student learning outcomes are evidenced.

The changes in student learning result, of course, from specific changes teachers have made in their classroom practices, for example, a new instructional approach, the use of new materials or curricula, or simply some modification in teaching procedures or classroom format. Whatever the case, the model posits that significant change in the beliefs and attitudes of teachers is contingent on their gaining evidence of change in the learning outcomes of their students.

Note that this model is not necessarily novel and does not explain or account for *all* of the variables that might be associated with the teacher change process. Its simplicity is not meant to impugn the complexity of the issues involved or the inherent interrelationships among components. Rather, the model is offered primarily as an ordered framework by which to better understand trends that appear to typify the dynamics of the teacher change process.

The perspective on teacher change presented in this model is predicated on the idea that change is a learning process for teachers that is developmental and primarily experientially based. The instructional practices most veteran teachers employ are determined and fashioned to a large extent by their experiences in the classroom (Lortie, 1975).

Practices that are found to work, that is, those that a teacher finds useful in helping students attain desired learning outcomes, are retained; those that do not work are abandoned. Hence, a key factor in the endurance of any change in instructional practices is demonstrable results in terms of the learning success of a teacher's students. Activities that are successful tend to be repeated while those that are not successful, or for which there is no tangible evidence of success, are generally avoided.

Beliefs and attitudes about teaching and instructional practices are similarly derived, largely from classroom experience. For example, a teacher who has been consistently unsuccessful at helping students from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds attain a high standard of learning is much more likely to believe they are incapable of academic excellence than a teacher who has experienced success in teaching these students. However, if the first teacher tried a new instructional strategy that successfully helped such students learn, that teacher's belief likely would change. The point is that evidence of improvement (positive change) in the learning outcomes of students generally precedes and may be a prerequisite to significant change in the beliefs and attitudes of most teachers.

Note that learning outcomes are broadly construed in this model to include not only cognitive and achievement indexes, but also the wide range of student affective characteristics. They can include students' scores on teacher-made quizzes and exams, as well as results from standardized achievement tests. But they can also include students' attendance, their involvement in class sessions, their motivation for learning, and their attitudes toward school, the class, and themselves. In other words, learning outcomes include whatever evidence a teacher uses to judge the effectiveness of his or her teaching.

According to the model, when teachers see that a new program or innovation enhances the learning outcomes of students in their classes; when, for example, they see their students attaining higher levels of achievement, becoming more involved in instruction, or expressing greater confidence in themselves or their ability to learn, then, and perhaps only then, is significant change in their beliefs and attitudes likely to occur.

Support for the Model

Evidence supporting this model of teacher change comes from several different areas. One is ethnographic observations made on the process of teacher change. For example, in summarizing his studies of teachers and his own classroom experiences, Bolster (1983) emphasizes that ideas and principles about teaching are believed to be true by teachers only "when they give rise to actions that 'work' " (p. 298). He argues strongly that what teachers believe to be true is that which they have seen work in their own classrooms with their students. Therefore, according to Bolster, efforts to improve education must begin by recognizing that teachers' knowledge of teaching is validated very pragmatically, and that without verification from the classroom, attitude change among teachers with regard to any new program or innovation is very unlikely.

The Study of Dissemination Efforts Supporting School Improvements, by Crandall et al. (1982) offers additional support. This study examined efforts to implement 61 innovative practices in schools and classrooms in 146 districts nationwide. Of particular interest to Crandall and his associates was the development of teachers' commitment to the new practices. In several instances they found project managers had tried to stimulate teachers' commitment to the new practices by involving them in problem-solving and decision-making prior to implementation. But in most cases, this was discovered to have deleterious effects. The new practices typically lost their effectiveness because they were altered by teachers beyond recognition.

In successful improvement efforts, on the other hand, teacher commitment was found to develop primarily *after* implementation took place. That is, teachers became committed to the new practices only after they had actively engaged in using them in their classrooms (Crandall, 1983). Again, this supports the idea that change in teachers' attitudes takes place primarily after some change in student learning has been evidenced.

Another example is Huberman's (1981) case study of one school district's efforts to implement the Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI) program. ECRI is a structured reading program available through the National Diffusion Network. According to Huberman, the first 6 months of program implementation were characterized by high anxiety and confusion among most teachers. Then came a period in which anxiety was reduced but teachers continued to have problems relating specific teaching behaviors to the underlying rationale of the new program.

After 6 more months, the majority of teachers had cognitively mastered the individual pieces of ECRI, but still had "little sense of integration of separate parts or, more globally, why certain skills or exercises are related to specific outcomes. Concern for understanding the structure and rationale of the program grew as behavioral mastery over its parts was achieved" (Huberman, 1981, p. 91). Thus, as Fullan (1985) notes in his summary of this study, changes in attitudes, beliefs, and understanding generally *followed*, rather than preceded, changes in behavior.

Still other support for the model comes from research focusing directly on the process of teacher change. In several recent investigations I have sought to determine the separate effects of inservice training, the use of new instructional procedures, and evidence of improved student learning on several measures of teachers' beliefs and attitudes (Guskey, 1979, 1982, 1984). The most recent study involved 117 teachers from two metropolitan school districts, all of whom volunteered to participate in a staff development training program on mastery learning (Bloom, 1968, 1971). Because of budget constraints, participation in the training program was limited to only about half the number of teachers who volunteered. Hence, those who could not be included served as the control group for the study.

Of the 52 teachers who were trained in the use of mastery learning, 34 used the procedures in their classes during the first school semester following the training and gained evidence of improved learning among their students. These teachers found that under mastery learning their students attained higher scores on course examinations and earned higher course grades than students in their other class sections where mastery learning procedures were not employed. Ten teachers used the procedures but found no difference in learning outcomes among the students in their class sections, and eight of the teachers trained never attempted to use mastery learning procedures in their classes.

When measures of change in different beliefs and attitudes were compared among these various groups of teachers using pretest and posttest data, an interesting pattern emerged. Teachers who used the mastery learning procedures and gained evidence of improvement in the learning outcomes of their students expressed more positive attitudes toward teaching and greater personal responsibility for their students' learning—similar to a sense of self-efficacy. In other words, these teachers came to like teaching more and felt that they had a stronger influence on the learning of their students. This was a particularly important finding since many previous studies have shown that experienced teachers generally do not view themselves as causal agents of the performance of their students (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1983; Cohen, 1972; Johnson, Baldwin, & Wiley, 1969; Smith & Goeffrey, 1968).

Similar changes were not experienced, however, by teachers who did not use the mastery learning procedures, *or* by those who did use the procedures but saw no evidence of improvement among their students. Only teachers who used the new procedures *and* gained evidence of positive change in their students' learning expressed these changes in their beliefs and attitudes. In the absence of such evidence, no significant change in teachers' beliefs or attitudes was found to occur.

Admittedly, generalization of these results is limited because all of the teachers were volunteers, and the number of teachers in two of the subgroups was relatively small. But at the same time, the consistency of these results with those of the studies mentioned previously makes a relatively strong case for the proposed model of teacher change.

A Similar Model

There is a striking similarity between the sequence of change events suggested by this model and a change model proposed nearly 100 years ago to describe the temporal relationship between emotion and behavioral response. In the late 1800s, the psychologist William James (1890) theorized that the important factor in an emotion is feedback from the bodily changes that occur in response to a particular situation. His theory seemed to conflict with commonly held notions about emotion and human behavior. Simply stated, James' theory suggested that we see a bear and run, therefore we are afraid. Or, if we slip while descending a staircase, we grab for the railing first, and then sense the fear of our near fall. This theory was also proposed by the Danish physiologist Carl Lange and is generally known as the James-Lange theory.

The model of teacher change outlined here might also seem to conflict with commonly held notions about the nature of educational change. The model implies that change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes is primarily a result, rather than a cause, of change in the learning outcomes of students. In the absence of evidence of positive change in students' learning, the model suggests that significant change in the beliefs and attitudes of teachers is very unlikely.

Implications for Staff Development

Assuming that this model of teacher change is accurate, what are its implications for staff development? Stemming from the model are the following three guiding principles. Consideration of these principles is believed to be essential in planning effective staff development programs that result in significant and sustained educational improvements.

1. *Recognize that change is a gradual and difficult process for teachers.* Learning to be proficient at something new and finding meaning in a new way of doing things requires both time and effort. Any change that holds great promise for increasing teachers' competence and enhancing student learning is likely to require extra work, especially when first beginning. The requirements of extra energy and time can significantly add to teachers' workload, even when release time is provided.

Furthermore, change also brings a certain amount of anxiety and can be very threatening. Like practitioners in many other fields, teachers are reluctant to adopt new practices or procedures unless they feel sure they can make them work (Lortie, 1975). To change or to try something new means to risk failure. Not only would this be highly embarrassing, but it also runs counter to most teachers' strong commitment to student learning. To change means to chance the possibility that students might learn less well than they do under current practices. Therefore, even when presented with evidence from the most carefully designed experimental studies, teachers do not easily alter or discard the practices they have developed and refined in the demanding environment of their own classrooms (Bolster, 1983).

In addition, though teachers are strongly committed to student learning and want to do all they can to improve learning outcomes, they generally oppose radical alterations to their present instructional procedures (Mann, 1978). The likelihood of their implementing a new program or innovation depends largely on their judgment of the magnitude of change required for implementation.

Programs or innovations that are dramatically different from teachers' current practices or that require teachers to make major revisions in the way they presently teach are unlikely to be implemented well, if at all (Doyle & Ponder, 1977). Therefore, if a staff development effort is to be successful, it must clearly illustrate how the new practices can be implemented incrementally, without too much disruption or extra work (Sparks, 1983). If a new program does require that major changes be made, it is best to ease into its use rather than expect comprehensive implementation at once (Fullan, 1985).

It is also important to recognize that no new program or innovation will be implemented uniformly. Teaching and learning are influenced by a multitude of situational and contextual variables. Hence, an appropriate balance must be struck between program fidelity and mutual adaptation considerations (Berman, 1980; Fullan, 1981; Griffin & Barnes, 1984). Close collaboration between program developers/researchers and teachers can greatly facilitate this process and can be accomplished in a variety of ways (Ward & Tikinoff, 1982).

Staff development efforts that successfully encourage and sustain change have been found to share several other common characteristics as well. First, if a new program or innovation is involved, it must be presented in a clear and explicit way. It should be explained in concrete, rather than abstract or theoretical terms, and should be aimed at specific (rather than global) teaching skills (Mazzarella, 1980).

Second, the personal concerns of teachers must be addressed in a direct and sensitive manner. If teachers are to focus attention on how the new program or innovation might benefit their students, they must first resolve their concerns about how the new practices will affect them personally (Hall & Loucks, 1978).

Third, the purveyor of the new practices must be seen as a credible person by those responsible for implementation. This person must be articulate and charismatic, and must emphasize the practicality of the new practices. Whether it is someone from within the system or an external consultant, it is essential that this person stress how these new practices can be practically and efficiently used (Crandall, 1983).

Although these characteristics greatly facilitate the implementation process, it is important to remember that very few teachers will leave a staff development effort thoroughly convinced that a new program or innovation will work for them. But it is hoped that many will be intrigued enough to try the new practices, at least on a trial basis, and will leave the staff development program with a 'Well, let's see'' attitude.

2. *Ensure that teachers receive regular feedback on student learning progress.* If the use of new practices is to be sustained and changes are to endure, teachers must receive regular feedback on the effects of these changes on student learning. It is a human characteristic that successful actions are reinforced while those that are unsuccessful tend to be diminished. Practices that are new and unfamiliar will be accepted and retained when teachers perceive them as having increased their success with students. After all, success and progress are the very stuff that makes teaching worthwhile. However, the new practices will likely be abandoned in the absence of any evidence of their positive effects. Therefore, plans for implementing a new program or innovation should include specific procedures by which teachers can receive evidence of the effectiveness of their efforts.

In programs involving the implementation of mastery learning, for example, teachers receive this type of feedback through the regular administration of *formative tests* (Bloom, Madaus, & Hastings, 1981). Formative tests are used in mastery learning primarily to give students detailed information on their learning progress. Paired with these tests are corrective activities designed to help students remedy their learning errors. But in addition to the feedback formative tests offer students, they offer teachers specific feedback on the effectiveness of their use of the mastery learning process.

These regular checks on student learning provide teachers with direct evidence of the results of their efforts. They illustrate clearly and precisely the improvements made in students' achievement. Formative tests can also be used to guide instructional revisions, when necessary, so that still other improvements can be attained (Guskey, 1985).

Students' scores on quizzes and tests are not the only type of feedback indicative of successful learning outcomes. Stallings (1980) found that providing teachers with regular and precise feedback on student involvement during class sessions can be very powerful in facilitating their use of new instructional practices. Evidence on students' feelings of confidence or self-worth can also serve this purpose (Dolan, 1980). Whatever the student learning outcome employed, it is critically important to plan some procedure by which teachers can receive regular feedback on that outcome to assess the effects of their efforts. When teachers gain this evidence and, as a result, see that a new program or innovation does work well in their classrooms, change in their beliefs and attitudes can and will follow.

3. *Provide continued support and follow-up after the initial training.* If change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes occurred primarily before implementation of a new program or innovation, the quality of the initial training would be of utmost importance. But since, as the model suggests, such change occurs mainly after implementation takes place and evidence of improved student learning is gained, it is continued support *following* the initial training that is most crucial.

Few teachers can move from a staff development program directly into the classroom and begin implementing a new program or innovation with success. In most cases, some time and experimentation are necessary for teachers to fit the new practices to their unique classroom conditions (Berman & McLaughlin, 1976; Joyce & Showers, 1980, 1982; Smith & Keith, 1971). Support during this period of trial and experimentation are critically important. Teachers need ongoing guidance and direction to make whatever adaptations may be necessary and at the same time maintain program fidelity. Furthermore, they need to know that assistance is readily available if problems develop or if unexpected difficulties are encountered. No matter how much advance staff development occurs, it is when teachers actually try to implement a new approach that they have the most specific concerns and doubts (Fullan, 1982). Support is also necessary so that teachers can tolerate the anxiety of occasional failures and persist in their implementation efforts (Cogan, 1975).

If a new program or innovation is to be implemented well, it must become a natural part of teachers' repertoire of teaching skills. Especially for program continuation and expansion, teachers must come to use the new practices almost out of habit. If this is to occur, continued support and encouragement are essential.

This crucial support for teachers can be offered in a variety of ways. Joyce and Showers (1982) suggest that it take the form of coaching—providing teachers with technical feedback, guiding them in adapting the new practices to the needs of their students, and helping them to analyze the effects on students. In other words, coaching is personal, hands-on, in-classroom assistance. Joyce and Showers further suggest that this assistance can be provided by administators, curriculum supervisors, college professors, or fellow teachers.

Simply providing teachers with opportunities to interact and share ideas can also be a very valuable mechanism for support. Little (1981), for example, found that staff development programs concerning new programs and innovations are most successful when teachers can regularly discuss their experiences in an atmosphere of collegiality and experimentation. For most teachers, having a chance to share perspectives and seek solutions to common problems is extremely beneficial. Similarly, Holly (1982) found that what teachers like best about inservice workshops generally is the opportunity to share ideas with other teachers.

Follow-up procedures incorporating coaching or time for collegial sharing may seem simplistic, particularly in light of the complex nature of the change process. Still, as the model suggests, careful attention to these types of support appears crucial in facilitating change.

Future Research

The model of teacher change outlined here presents a variety of opportunities for future research. As have others in the past (e.g., Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Fullan, 1982; Hall & Loucks, 1977), it emphasizes that change is a process rather than an event. However, it is hoped that it will stimulate renewed interest in the various components of that process, the nature of the relationship between components, and the transition from one component to the next.

For example, we need to find more creative ways to help teachers translate new knowledge into practice, keeping in mind the problems related to "working on" rather then "working with" teachers (Ward & Tikinoff, 1976). Better and more efficient methods of providing teachers with regular feedback on the learning progress of their students also should be identified. The specific teacher beliefs and attitudes most crucial to professional growth and development must be explored, and better ways of measuring these variables need to be found. Studies on these issues offer exciting possibilities. In addition, the findings are likely to have implications for staff development efforts at any level of education.

Note that this model offers a very

optimistic perspective on the potential of staff development. The model illustrates that although the process of teacher change is complex, it is also somewhat orderly. Furthermore, it suggests that careful attention to that order is likely to facilitate change and the endurance of change. Hence, staff development programs could potentially be far more effective and powerful than they generally have been in the past. It is hoped that the model outlined in this paper offers some direction for improving staff development programs.

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From

STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT
THROUGH STAFF DEVELOPMENT

by

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CHAPTER SIX

THE DESIGN OF TRAINING: PROVIDING THE CONDITIONS FOR LEARNING

Let us focus for a moment on a study group of science teachers in a pair of middle schools somewhere in the Midwest.

The six teachers are concentrating on increasing the teaching of scientific thinking as part of their courses. They have chosen the Inquiry Training model of teaching (Joyce & Weil, 1986, chap. five) as the focus of their effort. The model is specifically designed to teach causal reasoning. When using it the teachers present puzzling situations to the students who attack the problem by collecting and analyzing data and developing and testing hypotheses.

The teachers have attended a workshop where they studied the theory of inquiry training, participated in demonstrations where they were led through the process, analyzed videotapes of teaching episodes, and practiced formulating problems, presenting them to one another, and leading the inquiry training process. For the last two weeks they have been practicing the model with their students, teaching them how to analyze the problems, to collect and organize information, to build concepts and hypotheses, and test them. The teachers have worked together to build sets of puzzling problems that fit the content of the courses they teach and are now analyzing their students' ability to collect relevant information and organize it. For the time being the focus of their peer observations is on students ask to gain information. The focus of the study group meetings is on ways of helping the students work together to formulate better questions.

Our goal is the design of training that enables people to learn knowledge and skills new to them and transfer that knowledge and skill to active classroom practice. In this chapter we will examine research on training for two purposes. The first is to find principles for designing programs that will result in high levels of skill and its implementation. The second is a search for ways of conducting training in such a way that it increases the aptitude to learn skills more easily and effectively. In other words, we want to design training so that people learn to become more effective learners. As we did in chapter four, we will often report results in effect sizes (standard deviation units) to make comparisons between treatments more clear.

SELECTING TRAINING OBJECTIVES

What do we expect good training to accomplish? Aside from the content – academic knowledge, approaches to curriculum and instruction, how students develop and learn, learning styles, technologies, etc. – what is the nature of the behavior necessary to put that content into work in the classroom?

Training Content

Figure 3 illustrates the range of possibilities for selecting training objectives. The left side of the matrix defines characteristics of the training content. If the substance of the training is knowledge and skill that teachers generally possess to some extent but which need refinement for optimal classroom use, decision makers will be working in the top half of the matrix. For example, training that focusses on teacher praise and encouragement of student work or time allowed students to respond to questions would be classified as "refining of existing skill." Presumably, teachers already provide verbal encouragement to students for their efforts and ask questions during classroom recitations. The object of training becomes a more appropriate use of existing behaviors. If, on the other hand, training content represents for teachers an addition to repertoire – knowledge and skill not currently known about or practiced in their instruction – the bottom half of the matrix will be used. Obviously, "new repertoire" must be defined in relation to the knowledge and skills of individuals – what is new to one person may exist in the repertoire of another. Research on classroom teaching, however, has fairly well described how most teachers teach and we can be fairly certain that few teachers use the

Figure 3. Decision -making Matrix: Selecting Training Objectives.

Content Definition	Training Outcomes			
	Awareness/ Knowledge	Attitude Change	Skill Development	Transfer of Training
	Theories, Practices, Curriculums	Self, Children, Academic Content	Discrete Behaviors, Strategies	Consistent Use, Appropriate Use
Refining of Existing Knowledge and Skills: Simple Complex				
Addition to Repertoire: Simple Complex				

curricular and instructional models described in chapter four, (e.g., the more complex varieties of cooperative learning and group investigation, key-word and link-word memory strategies, synectics, inductive thinking) (Sirotnik, 1983; Medley, 1977; Goodlad & Klein, 1970; Good, Grouws, & Ebmeier, 1983, etc.). On the other hand, most teachers praise students, correct them, orient students to lessons, provide practice in class and as homework, so training that concentrates on those practices is for most persons an elaboration and strengthening of existing practices.

In addition to deciding whether training content will be a refining of existing knowledge and skill or an addition to repertoire, designers should also estimate the difficulty level of knowledge and skills to be learned. Placing content on a simple/complex continuum will clarify later decisions about the intensity and duration of training experiences.

Types of Outcomes

The outcomes expected of training have implications both for the design and evaluation of training. Potential outcomes are:

1. The knowledge or awareness of educational theories and practices, new curriculums, or academic content
2. Changes in attitudes toward self (role perception changes), children (minorities, handicapped, gifted), academic content (attitudes toward science, English as a second language, math)
3. Development of skill (the ability to perform discrete behaviors such as designing and delivering questions of various cognitive levels or the ability to perform clusters of skills in specific patterns as in a synectics exercise)
4. Transfer of training and "executive control" (the consistent and appropriate use of new skills and strategies for classroom instruction)

Given the objectives of any element of a program, the next task is to design training for maximum probability that the desired effects will be achieved.

Training Components

Several training elements are at our disposal.

An exploration of theory through discussions, readings, lectures, etc. is necessary for an understanding of the rationale behind a skill or strategy and the principles that govern its use. Study of theory facilitates skill acquisition by increasing one's discrimination of the demonstrations, by providing a mental image to guide practice and clarify feedback, and by promoting the attainment of executive control.

The **demonstration** or modeling of skill greatly facilitates learning. Skills can be demonstrated in settings that simulate the workplace, mediated through film or videotape, or conducted live in the training setting. Demonstrations can be mixed with explanation; the theory and modelling components need not be conducted separately. In fact, they have reciprocal effects. Mastery of the rationale of the skill facilitates discrimination, and modeling facilitates the understanding of underlying theories by illustrating them in action.

The third training component is the practice of skill under simulated conditions. The closer the training setting approximates the workplace the more transfer is facilitated. Considerable amounts of skill can be developed, however, in settings far removed from and different from the workplace.

"Peer teaching" (practice with other teachers) even has advantages. It provides experience as a "student", enables trainees to profit from one another's ideas and skill, and clarifies mistakes. It also is a good arrangement in which to develop the skills of peer coaching. Peer teaching and practice with small groups of children are safer settings for exploration than a full classroom. How much practice is needed depends, of course, on the complexity of the skill. To bring a model of teaching of medium complexity under control requires twenty or twenty-five trials in the classroom over a period of about eight or ten weeks. The more simple skills, or those more similar to previously developed ones, will require less practice to develop and consolidate than those that are more complex or different from the teachers' current repertoire.

Finally, **feedback** about performance facilitates skill development. Trainees can learn to provide feedback to each other and, utilizing audio or video recording, can critique themselves once they have a clear idea of the skill and how to use it. Feedback from others, to be of maximum utility for skill development, should occur as soon as possible following practice, should be specific to the behaviors being attempted by the trainee, and should be nonevaluative. Feedback will be discussed in greater detail in chapter seven.

The **coaching** of teaching occurs in the workplace following initial training. Coaching provides support for the community of teachers attempting to master new skills, provides technical feedback on the congruence of practice trials with ideal performance, and provides companionship and colleagial problem solving as new skills are integrated with existing behaviors and implemented in the instructional setting. Coaching will also be discussed at length in chapter seven.

Research on Training

Training, of course, does not exist outside a context. Someone has to decide what will be the substance of the training, who will provide training, when and where the training will be held and for what duration. The norms of the workplace impinge on the receptivity of participants to various configurations of training experiences, as do labor-relations histories and interpersonal relationships among participants. We have less data on the impact of many of these environmental and governance variables on the effectiveness of training than we have on actual training components. However, we recommend the participatory governance modes described in chapters two, three, and five to increase understanding of both the content and why it was selected for each component. Also, as we discussed in chapter three, we believe that cohesiveness and strong leadership in the school are critical to the success of training. The best trainers, working with the most relevant and powerful content, will find little success or receptivity in poor organizational climates. However, good climates and high motivation will not substitute for well-designed training. Fortunately, that research and experience have reached the point where we can assert that for specific training outcomes, certain training components or combinations of components provide optimal conditions for learning. Essentially, nearly all teachers can master a very wide range of teaching skills and strategies provided that the training is well-designed and the climate of the school facilitates and promotes cooperative study and practice.

Hence, designers of training must answer several questions before planning any training experience. For whom is the training intended and what is expected to result from the training? Is follow-up to training built into schools as a permanent structure or must follow-up be planned and delivered as part of the training package? Does the content of the training represent new learning for participants or is it an attempt to refine existing knowledge and skills?

Also, designers need to decide which training components will be used and how they will be combined. These components include the presentation of information or theory about the topic of the training, live and mediated demonstration or modelling of new skills and teaching models, opportunities for practice of new skills and strategies in the training setting as well as in the workplace, and feedback on performance in practice trials. Peer coaching of new skills and strategies, which largely occurs in the workplace, ideally is taught and practiced in the training setting as well.

Research on training provides some interesting insights into the efficacy of various training components and, particularly, combinations of them (Bennett, 1987; Joyce & Showers, 1983) (see Table 2). Information or theory-only treatments increase knowledge by about ES 0.50 (0.5 of a standard deviation on a normal curve), whereas theory combined with demonstration, practice and feedback results in an ES of 1.31 for knowledge (Bennett, 1987).

When skill is the desired outcome of training, the advantage of the combinations is equally clear. Theory or demonstration alone result in effect sizes for skill of around .5 of a standard deviation for refining existing skills, lower for new skills. Theory, demonstration and practice combined result in an ES of approximately .7 for skill, whereas theory, demonstration, practice, and feedback combined result in an ES of 1.18. When in-class coaching is added to the theory, demonstration, practice, feedback treatment, skill continues to rise.

Strangely, the question of transfer of training has been asked much less frequently in research on training than has the question regarding skill

Table 2. Effect Sizes for Training Outcomes by Training Components

Training Components and Combinations	Training Outcomes		
	Knowledge	Skill	Transfer of Training
Information	.63	.35	.00
Theory	.15	.50	.00
Demonstration	1.65	.26	.00
Theory Demo.	.66	.86	.00
Theory Practice	1.15		.00
Theory Demo. Prac.		.72	.00
Theory Demo. Practice Feedback	1.31	1.18	.39
Theory Demo. Practice Feedback Coaching	2.71	1.25	1.68

acquisition. Consequently, many fewer studies of training have measured transfer effects than have measured skill acquisition. Perhaps the assumption has been that skill, once developed, would automatically be used in classroom instruction. Recent analyses of the literature on training confirm what many trainers, teacher educators, and supervisors have long suspected – transfer of learned knowledge and skill is by no means a sure bet. In studies that have asked the transfer question (e.g., did participants use new skills in the classroom, did they use them appropriately, did they integrate new skills with existing repertoire, was there long-term retention of the products of training), several findings emerge. First, the gradual addition of training elements does not appear to impact transfer noticeably (ES of .00 for information or theory; theory plus demonstration; theory, demonstration and feedback; ES of .39 for theory, demonstration, practice and feedback). However, a large and dramatic increase in transfer of training – ES 1.68 – occurs when in-class coaching is added to an initial training experience comprised of theory explanation, demonstrations, and practice with feedback.

We have concluded from these data that teachers can acquire new knowledge and skill and use it in their instructional practice when provided with adequate opportunities to learn. We have hypothesized, further, that fully elaborated training systems develop a "learning to learn" aptitude; that, in fact, individuals learn more efficiently over the long term by developing the metacognitions that enable self-teaching in settings where essential training elements are missing.

Implications for Staff Development Practice

We have drawn several conclusions from the research on training which have implications for staff development programs serving individuals, schools and systems:

- First, regardless of who initiates a training program, participants must have sufficient opportunity to develop skill that they can eventually practice in classroom settings
- Second, if the content of training is new to trainees, training will have to be more extensive than for substance that is relatively familiar
- Third, if transfer of training is the training objective, follow-up such as coaching in the workplace will probably be necessary

SKILLS TEACHERS NEED AS LEARNERS TO MASTER NEW KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS

As research on effective teaching yields more data, it becomes increasingly urgent that teachers be able to use the products of that research. Designing training that maximizes opportunities for mastery of new information and skills is an important task. Are there "learning-to-learn" skills which some teachers develop in or bring to the training setting, and if so, can they be developed in others? And what have we learned from training about conditions that nurture and develop "learning-to-learn" skills?

Ripple & Drinkwater (1982, p. 1949) in their review of research on transfer of learning, note the following about "learning to learn":

> The concept of learning-to-learn implies the development of strategies or learning sets as a result of such experience (practice with a variety of problems). Preliminary practice on tasks that will transfer positively to performance on different criterion tasks is required for the development of learning to learn strategies.

From research on training and curriculum implementation, school improvement and change, and our personal training experiences, we have identified several practices, attitudes, and skills that appear to facilitate learning apttitude.

Persistence

Practice of new skills and behaviors increases both skill and comfort with the unfamiliar. The benefits of practice are well known to educators and are often reiterated in training settings. Yet many trainees try a new skill or practice only once or else never try it at all. The "driving through" initial trials in which performance is awkward and effectiveness appears to decrease rather than increase is one characteristic which appears to differentiate successful from unsuccessful learners. Avoidance of the difficult and awkward is not unique to teachers as learners, as golfers, skiers and tennis players can attest. Changing one's own behavior is difficult, especially when one has fairly dependable strategies already fully developed.

Acknowledgment of the Transfer Problem

Mastery of new skills, especially when they differ substantially from existing skills, is rarely sufficient for implementation in classroom practice. Introducing a new procedure or teaching strategy into an existing repertoire of instructional behaviors generally creates dislocation and discomfort. Yet, considerable practice of new behaviors is required if teachers are not only to become technically proficient with them but also to integrate them sensibly and appropriately with existing behaviors. Teachers who understand the necessity for the additional effort required if new behaviors are to be merged with existing instructional practices and expend the extra effort to think through where the new behaviors fit and for what they are effective are much more likely to implement an innovation than teachers who don't acknowledge and address this learning task. Transfer of training is a separate learning task, a metacognitive condition that appears to increase efficiency in skill acquisition as well as eventual transfer of learning. Both trainers and learners have tended to underestimate the cognitive aspects of implementation – teachers have assumed they have only to see something in order to use it skillfully and appropriately, and trainers have devoted little or no time during training to attacking the transfer problem.

Teaching New Behaviors to Students

Part of the difficulty in introducing new curriculums or teaching processes into the classroom is student discomfort with change. Students quickly learn the rules of the classroom game and how to respond to the demands of the learning environment. Those who are successful with existing conditions may be particularly reluctant to have the rules changed. When new procedures are introduced, students may exert pressure on the teacher to return to the patterns of behavior with which they are familiar and comfortable, or, if not comfortable, which they understand well. Consequently, if a teacher has typically run a brisk recitation in which students were asked rapid-fire recall questions over material they have previously read or been introduced to in some other fashion, students have learned how to signal they know the answers, how to avoid being called on when they don't know the answers, and what to expect in terms of feedback (e.g., immediate information regarding the correctness of responses, the message that there is a "right" answer). If this teacher then introduces an inquiry process into the classroom which shifts responsibility to students for collecting and analyzing data and setting and testing hypotheses, and knowledge is viewed as emergent and tentative, student discomfort with the new demands may encourage the teacher to abandon the new strategy after one or two trials. When this happens, neither teacher nor students develop sufficient expertise with the new strategy to evaluate potential benefits and uses.

Teachers who directly teach the requisite skills to students, including both the cognitive and social tasks required by specific innovations, are much more likely to integrate successfully the new behaviors with existing instructional repertoire.

Meeting the Cognitive Demands of Innovations

Teachers frequently have complained that their training has over-emphasized "theory" and neglected the practical or clinical aspects of teaching. It is probable, however, that without a thorough grounding in the theory of an innovation, or what Fullan calls "deep understanding", that teachers will be unable to use new skills and strategies in any but a most superficial manner. Understanding of the theory underlying specific behaviors enables flexible and appropriate use of the behaviors in multiple situations and prevents the often ludicrous following of "receipes" for teaching. Thus, a teacher who wishes to organize presentations or entire courses with advance organizers must understand the conceptual framework of the material to be so organized and be able to extract and organize concepts into a hierarchy of ideas. The teacher who wishes to apply the link-work method to the acquisition of foreign language vocabulary must understand the research from cognitive psychology regarding the role of association in memory. And the teacher who wishes to implement a contingency management system must completely understand the nature of reinforcers and how they operate.

Teachers who master the theory undergirding new behaviors they wish to use in their classrooms implement those behaviors in greater congruence with the researched and tested ideal and are more likely to replicate results obtained in research settings with their own students.

Productive Use of Peers

During the last few years, research on training has documented the benefits of peers helping peers in the implementation of innovations. Regular, structured interaction between or among peers over substantive content is one of the hallmarks of a profession and is viewed by other professionals as essential professional nourishment rather than a threat to autonomy. A family dentist does not hesitate to consult a root canal specialist in the midst of an examination if he or she feels the need for consultation nor does a hairdresser feel constrained in getting a second opinion regarding the type of permanent needed for a particular head of hair. This propensity to seek the advice and assistance of other professionals was vividly illustrated recently when one of the leading cardiologists in the world explained to us his decision-making process in the operating room. Fifteen medical personnel (surgeons, anesthesiologists, cardiologists) discussed the pros and cons of reopening a patient's chest versus using drug therapy following by-pass surgery in which the patient's heart was fibrillating. Rather than feeling embarrassment that he had asked for other opinions, the cardiologist seemed to assume we would find comfort in the fact that he had consulted the other professionals on the spot.

Teachers also have begun to appreciate the benefits of mutual study and problem solving in relation to professional competence. The programs which build into training and follow-up of training opportunities for collegial work on the mastery and use of innovative practices and content contribute not only to the individual competence of teachers participating in them but also build their sense of membership in a profession. Furthermore, teachers who assume a proactive stance in relation to self-help peer relationships appear to gain much more from such programs than do teachers who merely "submit" to them. Observing other professionals work is a valuable learning experience in itself, and collaborative analysis of teaching and planning for appropriate use of an innovation usually results in more practice and more focussed practice. Finally, the proactive teachers who can and will state what they need – what they understand and what they don't – rather than relying on the mind-reading capability of their peers are likely to benefit more from professional collegial study than teachers who are passive in the relationship.

Flexibility

Flexibility appears to be a highly functional attribute of teachers in training. During the first stage of learning when trainees are introduced to new content and/or processes, traditional thinking about curriculum and instruction may have to be reoriented. If training consists of learning an inductive thinking strategy, for example, current materials may have to be reorganized or supplemented in order to provide students with data rather than conclusions and generalizations. Teachers may also have to rethink their roles as instructors in the classroom. If they have conceived their roles as information givers, instructional processes that transfer greater responsibility to students for their own learning may require rethinking of educational goals, ways and means. In the transfer stage of learning, when teachers are attempting to use new content and processes appropriately in the instructional setting, a reorientation to students may be necessary. When new and different expectations are held for students, teachers must figure out what learning skills students possess and which must be directly taught in order for students to operate within different frameworks. Teacher flexibility in the learning process can be summed up as a spirit of inquiry, a willingness to experiment with their own behavior, and an openness to evidence that alternatives have something to offer.

CONDITIONS THAT HELP TEACHERS DEVELOP LEARNING SKILLS

If indeed skills, attitudes and characteristics such as perserverence in the face of discomfort, understanding of the transfer of training problem, directly teaching new processes to students, understanding and tackling the cognitive demands of innovations, productive use of peers in the learning process, and teacher flexibility develop learning-to-learn capabilities, what are the conditions in inservice training programs that foster these aptitudes and behaviors?

Adequate Training

Training that develops a high degree of skill with and understanding of an innovation seems essential if teachers are to later practice new behaviors in their classrooms, teach new processes to students and work collaboratively with peers on appropriate implementation. Providing conditions that enable teachers to engage in learning-to-learn activities probably means designing training that includes an explication of theory, multiple demonstrations of processes and content to be mastered, and opportunities for practice with factual, non-evaluative feedback.

Opportunities for Colleagial Problem Solving

Working closely with peers is not characteristic of most higher education training programs and is definitely not typical of schools. The isolation in which teachers in our schools work has been well documented, and a perusal of most school's schedules would confirm what teachers tell us--teachers generally work alone in a classroom of students and see other teachers perhaps one period a day (secondary) if they go to a common room during their preparation period. Time for both preservice and inservice teachers to observe each other work, analyze their teaching, and plan together the best choices of content and process for specific educational objectives must be structured into the workplace.

Building Norms That Support Experimentation

Staff development programs frequently offer training that directs "Learn this and do it. Effective teachers do X." Teachers are told to provide positive reinforcement to students, assign homework, provide a learning "set", ask questions at varying levels of cognitive complexity, keep students on task, and evaluate student progress, and are given procedures for accomplishing these behaviors. If teachers were to learn, first in their preservice programs and later in their school districts that experimentation with one's own behavior can lead to increased knowledge, they would be more open to exploring alternatives. One of the greatest difficulties encountered by schoo improvement and change efforts is the attitude that "we already learned how to do that". This is not to label teachers as intransigent but rather to note that we have, through our most common approaches to teacher preparation and training, inculcated the notion that right answers are fight forever. To the extent that we can develop views of knowledge as emergent, views of the profession as changing, and views of the individual as growing, we will have provided conditions that enable teachers to experiment with the content and process of their craft.

Organizational Structures that Support Learning

Districts and schools can structure the workplace so that collaborative work is possible and rewarded, training is provided that maximizes opportunities for skill mastery and implementation, and attitudes and norms that support experimentation are communicated. Building level and central office administration are powerful (and sometimes unintentional) molders of expectations and norms, and dispensers of rewards and sanctions. Whether the belief is waranted or not, many teachers feel they are not free to experiment with curriculum and instruction, that the "knowledge of most worth" is that covered by standardized tests. The forceful and active leadership of school and district admninistrators can counter prevailing norms and help establish new ones.

IMPLEMENTING TRAINING DESIGNS

Returning to Opal District, which we discussed in chapter two, what are the training implications for Adrienne as an individual working on her clinical skills, as a member of a coaching team and study group working on a school improvement goal, and as a teacher in a district attempting to improve student writing through the use of computer-assisted word processing?

Adrienne and her colleagues possess nearly all the attitudes, skills, and practices discussed above. Because of their commitment to collaborative approaches to educational problems, they have a framework in place that serves individual as well as collective and systemic priorities. The institutionalized system of coaching teams and study groups assists individuals in learning and implementing new skills whether the initiative originated with individual interest, as a school-wide concern or a district-wide thrust. The Opal School faculty has learned to coordinate efforts in staff development and avoid the fragmentation that prevents effective learning in any area.

In training settings, they tend to request theory and demonstration in proportion to their needs, thus drawing from the instructor in any given situation the elements they know they will need for eventual skill mastery and implementation. They prefer opportunities to practice with feedback in the training setting but know they can provide practice and feedback to each other in the school setting if training time is limited. They are likely to draw from trainers references on the effectiveness of specific practices/skills/strategies and incorporate such reading into their study group sessions. Most important, they understand the requirements for transfer and have expedited the transfer process for themselves by organizing permanent structures that facilitate the mastery of theory, skills, and application.

SUMMARY

From the research on training and studies of transfer of training as well as clinical experience over the last 20 years, we have identified teacher skills, understandings and characteristics that appear to facilitate learning. The concern for identification of "learning-to-learn" skills stems from the contradictions that exist between skill learning and use of those skills in staff development programs. That teachers can learn a wide variety of skills, strategies and practices is well documented. That behaviors learned in training settings are less often implemented in classroom practice is also well documented, even though more intensive training programs that include follow-up training and employ peer self-help groups have much better implementation records than the field as a whole.

Snow (1982), commenting on three papers prepared for a symposium on "The Student's Role in Learning," notes that "learning is a function of the amount of active mental effort invested in the exercise of intelligence to accomplish cognitive work" (p. 5). He further asserts that "it is possible to train directly the cognitive and metacognitive processing skills involved in intelligent learning and it is possible to prompt intrinsically motivated learning by intelligent arrangement of educational conditions" (p. 10). If the skills and characteristics identified in this chapter do indeed help teachers learn from training opportunities to the extent that they are better able to master and implement new content and instructional practices, we are a step closer to developing the conditions that enable teachers to master the "cognitive and metacognitive processing skills involved in intelligent learning."

From a career perspective, it may be that learning how to acquire good practices should take a place of substantively equal importance with the good practices themselves. The effectiveness of preservice teacher training programs may well depend on the skill of the teacher candidates to navigate the consolidation phase in the variety of settings in which they will find themselves. The creation of effective inservice training programs may equally depend on the skills of teachers to learn ever increasing knowledge and practices and how to consolidate them. Current staff development efforts expend a large portion of their energy in persuasion and in helping teachers cope with anxiety and stress. The situation might be quite different if those same teachers had been adequately prepared for the life-long process of professional education.

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Special Feature

LINDA LAMBERT

Staff Development

The End of an Era of Staff Development

Staff development should not place teachers in a passive learning role but should encompass a broad range of professional growth opportunities.

We have come to the end of an era. Staff development as we have known it has proven ineffective and limiting. To usher in a new era, we need a new vision of staff development—one that challenges and involves teachers in the honoring and creation of their own knowledge.

The Beginning of the Era

The present era of staff development began more than 15 years ago when we began to see the teacher as an adult learner. This "revolutionary" insight coincided with an increase in knowledge about adult learning (Lambert 1983). We learned that cognitive development does not peak in late adolescence, plateau, and then decline. Indeed, cognitive complexity continues to develop—or has the potential to do so—throughout one's life, even into late adulthood (Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983).

We realized then that teachers had not necessarily given the best years of their lives to preservice. There was hope for a lifetime of learning on the job. Therefore, our modest attempts at inservice—one-shot inspirational speakers or an occasional conference in subject matter—fell far short of addressing our needs for systematic learning about teaching.

So *inservice* gave way to *staff development*. As excellent teachers, we sought this challenge. We became expert in skills we could teach to our colleagues. We became the new breed of trainers: staff developers. Lacking an articulated knowledge base of our own, we turned to research for answers to our questions: What is good teaching? What does it look like? How do we know when we're doing it? Can we teach it to others? Can we model it for others?

Enter stage left, Madeline Hunter (1979), followed by David Berliner (1984). We listened. What we heard rang true: there are effective elements of good instruction. As teachers, we had known that. Now we had our knowledge base—at least our first important piece of it. Our new knowledge also gave us direction in how to deliver this information to adults. After all, good instruction is good instruction. Armed with our discrete skills and training manuals, we forged ahead.

By the late '70s we were defining staff development as learning about a new skill and transferring that skill to the classroom.

Enter stage right, Bruce Joyce and this thing called "coaching" (Joyce and Showers 1983). Joyce told us that if skills are to be tranferred to the classroom, there must be more than telling and showing. We needed modeling, practice, and feedback. Again, this made sense.

By the late '70s we were defining staff development as learning about a new skill and transferring that skill to the classroom. Thus we had our premiere model for staff development (Joyce and Showers 1980):

- presentation of theory,
- demonstration of skill,
- protected practice,
- practice,
- feedback,
- coaching.

In most quarters, this definition still stands today (California Study of Staff Development 1987, ASCD 1985).

Direct Instruction Drawbacks

Meanwhile, our investigation of "effective schools"—elementary schools successful with low-ability students as measured by standardized tests—confirmed the work of Hunter and Berliner.

the most successful schools used more direct instruction.

In the more-than-10 years since the effective schools movement began, however, we have learned some disturbing things about this model of instruction.

- With direct instruction, students tend to do slightly better on achievement tests initially but do slightly worse on tests of abstract thinking, creativity, and problem solving (Peterson 1979, Glickman 1979).
- Students with an internal locus of control who take responsibility for their own learning do worse with direct instruction, while students with an external locus of control do better (Wright and DeCetter 1976).
- High-achieving, task-oriented students do worse in direct instruction than in less direct approaches (Ebmeier and Good 1979, Solomon and Kendall 1976).
- After three years of predominant use of direct instruction, achievement scores plateau and begin to decline (Robbins and Wolfe 1987).

Similar findings have been reported around the country (Robbins 1987, Stallings 1987). These findings raise serious doubts about direct instruction for children. Of course, direct instruction still has an important role to play in the classroom; but if it is the centerpiece of the learning experience, it gets in the way of human development.

Yet, despite our knowledge of the drawbacks of direct instruction, the premiere model of staff development for adults is in many ways *parallel to the direct instruction model for students* (see fig. 1).

Fig. 1. Parallels Between Staff Development and Direct Instruction

Direct Instruction Model	Staff Development Model
input	presentation of theory
modeling	demonstration
guided practice	protected practice
independent practice	practice
more guided practice	feedback and coaching

This preferred staff development approach reflects many misconceptions about adult learning.

- Adult learning is an *outside-in* rather than an *inside-out* process.
- Teachers as learners are conduits; they do not perceive, translate, or construct knowledge.
- Changes in discrete behaviors will improve decision making and thereby enable teachers to make continuous and informed decisions as they teach.
- Craft knowledge and experience are not necessarily valid.
- Choice is limited by indisputable research about "right" practice.
- Growth and development occur solely as functions of pedagogical practices.

Why have these false assumptions endured so long? If we eagerly accepted the new knowledge about adult learning, why did we adopt a model whose assumptions deny the most basic tenets of adult learning? The reason, I believe, is that staff development has been nestled in the promise of collegiality.

The Lure of Collegiality

The merits of collegiality have been well established (Bird and Little 1983, Little 1982, Lieberman 1982, Kent 1985, McNergney and Carrier 1981, Zahorik 1987). Collegial practice expands cognitive complexity, leads to thoughtful planning and reflective practice, and increases teachers' satisfaction with their work.

Teachers consistently report that the power and attraction of staff development lies in the opportunity to talk to other teachers (George 1986). "Collegiality" was seductive and satisfying to teachers; the more we could make it happen, the more pleased we were with our staff development activities. We conspired with our colleagues in the passive process of receiving knowledge. Technical coaching became a collegial practice for "oiling" the pipeline of passivity. If the new learning wasn't a "take," we pointed the finger at the lack of practice and coaching (Robbins and Wolfe 1987). We began to speculate about the vast number of trials needed for transfer of a new skill to occur. If we would just tell teachers more and longer, we believed, they'd finally learn the new skill. We didn't question the "telling."

In playing a passive role in staff development, teachers failed to take charge of their own profession. And we staff developers unwittingly colluded with arthritic bureaucracies to keep teachers from questioning and demanding more of the system. We have not challenged teachers to inquire, criticize, participate, or create. Instead, we have perpetuated the paternalistic system that reinforces schooling-as-usual; we have taught teachers to accept the system as it is, concede that

The premiere model of staff development for adults is in many ways parallel to the direct instruction model for students.

valid knowledge lies outside their day-to-day world, and focus exclusively on the students (without balanced attention to developing oneself, one's colleagues, and the profession).

Involving the Learner

If we acknowledge the inadequacies of the era of staff development in which the learner is the recipient of expert knowledge, what must we do to usher in a new era? We must redesign staff development to involve and empower the learner. Because we have insisted on "telling" teachers how to improve, the staff development community has had limited influence on the profession. Instead of persisting in this error, we should encourage teachers to do what they have not done:

- talk about their own thinking and teaching, instead of just about materials, discipline, activities, and individualization for students;
- initiate change in the school environment;
- contribute to the knowledge base of the profession;
- enculturate new teachers in the positive-practice and self-directing norms of teaching;
- share in the leadership of schools;
- foster teachers' union commitment to improving the profession, especially at the local level;
- help to design the restructuring of schooling;
- design new or expanded roles for themselves;
- actively and cooperatively improve the societal image of teaching as a profession.

If we would just tell teachers more and longer, we believed, they'd finally learn the new skill. We didn't question the "telling."

Opportunities to Learn

When teachers engage in reflective practice, collegiality, and shared leadership, they come to understand themselves and their work differently. This new understanding causes a shift in their beliefs and norms. This shift, in turn, creates new opportunities, new visions of what can be done. The new professional development is a cultural, not a delivery, concept.

This cycle of professional development requires taking advantage of the rich and varied opportunities to learn that are available in schools. These opportunities are numerous: when teachers participate in decisions, redefine their roles, reflect on their own competence, converse with peers, advocate new programs or schedules, pose questions about their work, or give guidance to new teachers, thereby eliciting and articulating their own knowledge.

Such a view incorporates the dimensions of empowerment: options, choice, authority, and responsibility (Freire 1970, Champoux 1984, Lambert 1983, Lightfoot 1987, Benveniste 1987, Marshall 1985). These emancipatory elements are described below.

Options. Awareness that options exist—in roles, tasks, career, use of time, relationships, strategies, curriculum—unleashes a sense of liberation or personal power in the individual.

Choice. Awareness of options must be accompanied by the freedom to choose among them; a teacher has no options without the power of choice. By exercising choice, teachers move from a passive to an active role. However, one choice may be the conscious decision not to exercise an option.

Authority. Teachers who take an active role need authority both inside and outside the classroom. They need to share in power and leadership. The sharing of authority means the sharing of responsibility. It also means redefining the role of the teacher.

Responsibility. Professional development means developing the profession as well as oneself. Each teacher is responsible for contributing to the redesign of schooling to better meet the needs of all concerned, sharing in the enculturation of new teachers, and contributing to the knowledge base of the profession.

District Actions

In a professional environment that highly values these empowering elements, teachers engage in a broad range of professional growth opportunities. Many school districts in Marin County, California, for example, are dedicated to developing inquiring systems. Over the past four years, these districts have refocused decision-making authority and the source of knowledge about teaching by:

- working with schools and staffs to schedule time for teachers to work together;
- providing clerical, para-professional, and technological support for teachers;
- providing discretionary funds for innovation, experimentation, and research—and providing teachers with authority over the use of those funds;
- supporting teacher-designed and district-designed roles—researcher, advisor, university liaison, curriculum specialist, leadership team member—to expand areas of expertise and extend authority;
- eliminating exclusive reliance on administrative judgments and assisting and promoting teacher self-evaluation;
- seeking and insisting on nonconfrontational bargaining to engender "win-win" working relationships;
- sharing decisions at all levels with staff—virtually eliminating distrust and incapacity to act;

We have not challenged teachers to inquire, criticize, participate, or create.

- providing ombudsman services by teacher leaders to other districts, universities, professional organizations, the state department, and business;
- removing unnecessary bureaucratic rules such as policies that centralize all decisions on resources.

A New Role for Staff Developers

If teachers become proactive participants who assume responsibility for professionalizing teaching, will the staff developer—as well as staff development—become obsolete? Absolutely not! In this new vision of staff development, the staff developer and the principal become "systems facilitators," with additional skills and additional functions. The new staff developer will assist professionals to:

- inquire into and reflect upon practice,
- elicit and share craft knowledge,
- identify and create options for learning,
- lead and work collaboratively,
- learn about new developments in the profession,
- design school and district systems that open opportunities and encourage participation.

A New Social Contract

Can we as staff developers enter into a new social contract with our professional peers? I believe we can, because of the changes we have already made. We have created roles for ourselves, we have assumed authority over a new realm, we have taken responsibility for an ever-widening arena of adult learning activities, we have talked among ourselves and sought information when and where we needed it. We have become smarter . . . and wiser. From the vantage of our own engagement with multiple opportunities for learning, can we now do less with others?□

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Despite previous research, in-service programs often need improvement

Effective staff development

By Susan F. Loucks and Patricia Zigarmi

Writers in the field of educational change have repeatedly pointed out that change in schools is a process, not an event. Yet, policy-makers, decision-makers, administrators and even staff developers frequently behave in ways that betray this basic assumption. Those of us involved in the study and the delivery of staff development still discover, in amazement, a myriad of one-day, "hit and run" workshops, lectures delivered by visiting experts to whole school systems, classroom walls torn down in July with the expectation of "open classrooms" in September and legislative mandates decreeing massive changes by a certain date.

Staff developers have some control over all of these situations—more control over the types of staff development activities their districts provide, less, perhaps, over external mandates. In either case, the careful design and conduct of staff development activities is essential if any improvement is to take place in our schools. Such activities must reflect what we know about the change process.

Educational change has long been the topic of discussion and debate among researchers, theorists, and practitioners. It is only in the past five or 10 years, however, that attention has been given to the area of implementation and studies have focused on the actual use of innovations by individuals. Two major areas of study are noted: attempts to understand (1) how people change in both their feelings about and their use of new programs, and (2) what processes and characteristics of individuals and settings facilitate or inhibit the change process. Contributions have been made through work by the Texas R&D Center for Teacher Education, the Rand Corporation, the UCLA/Kettering Foundation Studies, and the Oregon Center for Educational Policy and Management (see reference list).

This article draws on these studies, as well as on our own research and extensive experience in the delivery of staff development, to delineate elements of staff development that are related to successful innovation implementation. We begin by illustrating our belief that "change is a process" by describing four phases of the change process. Within each phase, we then discuss characteristics of effective staff development programs. We end by presenting two short examples of how these elements have been and can be combined in practice.

Our Perspective of the Change Process

We believe that staff development is a "people" activity. Granted, it occurs within an organizational context and must deal with organizational constraints. However, if institutions are to improve, the individuals within them must change. For many years we have been involved in research on the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), a model for change which focuses on the individual (Hall, Wallace & Dossett, 1973). It assumes that individuals grow in both their feelings toward and their use of new programs and that, in order to facilitate that growth, one must tailor assistance to specific developmental needs.

When involved with an innovation, individuals generally progress through three global stages in their concerns about the new approach. **Self** concerns manifest during introductory phases (How will this affect **me**?). Initial use is characterized by concerns about **management** of the program (Will I ever get it all organized?). Only when these prior concerns are resolved do concerns about **impact** on learners dominate (Are they learning what they need?). Research on the CBAM has identified seven Stages of Concern About the Innovation that reflect this general trend (see Figure 1). These stages have been initially verified, measurement procedures have been developed, and they have been used extensively in research and practice (Hall & Loucks, 1979).

Figure 1
Stages of Concern:
Typical Expressions of Concern about the Innovation

Stages of Concern	Expressions of Concern
6 Refocusing	I have some ideas about something that would work even better.
5 Collaboration	I am concerned about relating what I am doing with what other instructors are doing.
4 Consequence	How is my use affecting kids?
3 Management	I seem to be spending all my time in getting material ready.
2 Personal	How will using it affect me?
1 Informational	I would like to know more about it.
0 Awareness	I am not concerned about it (the innovation).

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People also change in their use of new programs. Generally, as individuals become more familiar with an innovation, they become more skilled and coordinated in its use, and more sensitive to its effect on students. Levels of Use of the Innovation (see Figure 2) is a second dimension of the CBAM which describes changes in individuals in relation to their actual use of an innovation (Hall, Loucks, Rutherford & Newlove, 1975).

Figure 2
Levels of Use of the Innovation:
Typical Behaviors

	Level of Use	Behavioral Indices of Level
VI	Renewal	The user is seeking more effective alternatives to the established use of the innovation.
V	Integration	The user is making deliberate efforts to coordinate with others in using the innovation.
IVB	Refinement	The user is making changes to increase outcomes.
IVA	Routine	The user is making few or no changes and has an established pattern of use.
III	Mechanical use	The user is using the innovation in a poorly coordinated manner and is making user-oriented changes.
II	Preparation	The user is preparing to use the innovation.
I	Orientation	The user is seeking out information about the innovation.
0	Nonuse	No action is being taken with respect to the innovation.

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Using these two concepts (Figure 1 and 2), it is possible to view the change process in four general phases. Each phase is characterized by the concerns individuals experience and how the program is used. These phases are: (1) Orientation and Preparation, (2) Implementation, (3) Maintenance, and (4) Refinement. Within each phase, some staff development activities are more effective than others. In fact, certain kinds may even be required if the innovation is to be successfully utilized.

Orientation and Preparation Phase

At this phase, individuals have concerns that are personal and informational in nature. They want to know about the new program and how it will affect them, indicating Orientation and Preparation Levels of Use. Some staff development activities that are likely to be effective in helping people use the innovation during this phase are:

1. Teacher Involvement in Planning

Teachers should be involved in the change process well before they are trained to use the program. There appears to be two reasons why teacher involvement is important. First, staff development activities and support structures are more likely to meet the needs of teachers who have helped structure them around their concerns. Teachers are often in the best position to anticipate problems they may encounter in implementing a new program. They can lend a note of reality to the planning and help ensure that the activities planned are relevant. Secondly, a teacher who has helped plan is likely to have a greater sense of "ego" involvement and will work to make the effort successful.

Although it is rarely possible for every teacher to be involved in planning a change effort, it is possible for some to be highly involved and for others to have input at particular points. Teachers can also be involved in different ways—some in designing time lines and the overall plan, others in materials construction or in coordinating logistical arrangements. Others can serve as presenters or resource teachers.

There are some constraints to extensive teacher involvement in planning. It requires some provision for released time. Staff development coordinators should also recognize that cooperative planning always takes longer and involves more hassles. Finally, teachers do not always have the expertise or authority to accomplish tasks related to their involvement in planning and may need training simply to be participants in this stage of the change process.

2. Clearly Stated Expectations

The objectives of the change effort should be clearly communicated to teachers so they will understand what is expected of them. This element of effective staff development program planning is targeted at informational and personal concerns. It means two things. First, the objectives of the new program, requirements for implementation (e.g., materials, time, etc.), the components of the innovation, and how it is to be used in the classroom must be clear. In addition, teachers must know what is expected of them in terms of attendance at staff development activities, classroom and role changes, a time line for use in the classroom, and any attendant evaluation activities. They also need to know what they can expect in the way of assistance, when and whom to call for help.

3. A Safe Learning Environment

The social psychological environment in which a staff development activity takes place has an important bearing on its success. As a general rule, staff development activities that generate or take place in a low-threat, comfortable setting in which there is a degree of psychological "safety" for the teacher are most conducive to change. A teacher's openness to learning appears to be enhanced when the teacher is among peers who share similar concerns, problems, and solutions. During learning experiences, teachers should be able to "admit" to areas of need without fear of being evaluated.

4. Opportunities for Active Involvement and Practice During Training

In anticipation of the Management concerns that are typically part of the Implementation Phase, the last activity that occurs in this current phase is the actual training in use of the program. The most successful staff development activities aimed at the question, "how do I do it," are those which provide the teacher an opportunity to become actively involved. These include "hands-on" experiences with materials, participation in exercises that will later be used with students, demonstrations of new teaching techniques, and practice in using the techniques with the opportunity for constructive feedback. These "dry runs" help teachers anticipate problems they will encounter in using the new program with students.

The Implementation Phase

During the Implementation Phase, teachers are mastering the behaviors necessary to use the innovation smoothly, to integrate it into daily practice. Their first use is somewhat uncoordinated, and they are not able to plan far ahead, indicative of a Mechanical Level of Use. Concerns are often management-related, as each component is used for the first time with students. It is not unlike the first few months in a teaching career.

Staff developers are just beginning to acknowledge the importance of their role in this phase. Clearly, teachers need help when they confront problems in first using the new program with students. If such help is not received, a frequent consequence is that the innovation is changed beyond recognition, in order for the teacher to be able to survive. Some effective staff development practices during this phase are:

1. Opportunity for Follow-Up

Teachers should have the opportunity to ask questions and clarify how the innovation is to be used after initial training is completed. Usually the material and experiences provided in training require time for practice, reflection or "digestion." Often these activities result in more questions, problems, and considerations. Providing a formal opportunity, rather than a "call if you need something," is a useful strategy for solving these emerging problems.

The problems teachers encounter in this phase are mostly idiosyncratic. Thus, large group sessions are rarely required. One staff development strategy called "comfort and caring" involves a staff developer being available in a school during certain times for any input teachers desire: an opportunity to ask questions, a demonstration lesson, an explanation of a puzzling set of materials that do not work the way they are supposed to, a conference about a difficult student, or just emotional support. This regular follow-up provides for individual needs.

2. Continuous Assessment of Needs

Change is a developmental process—new needs arise over time. Teachers should be given an opportunity to express concerns and needs as they arise. Effective staff development depends on knowledge of participants' needs—needs for comfort, security and belongingness, as well as needs for new information, attitudes, and skills. Informal techniques, such as talking to principals or interacting with teachers during follow-up activities, can be used to assess needs continuously.

3. Reinforcement of Effort

Teachers' efforts to use the innovation need to be recognized and rewarded. Although follow-up during this phase might be problem-oriented or skill-building, it also needs to afford moral support and understanding. When teachers know expectations are not unrealistic for the first year, their personal concerns are lowered. Staff developers and building administrators need to communicate to teachers their understanding that first year programs are often difficult and that problems and roughness are simply part of the change process. Teachers need positive feedback on their efforts to use the innovation, helping them build a sense of mastery or accomplishment, which is essential if commitment to continued use is to remain high.

This is also a key time for administrators to recognize that in order to encourage use of the innovation, changes may be needed in such areas as teaching schedules, extra-curricular assignments, the reward system and how support personnel are used. By developing supportive and compatible organizational procedures, teachers' efforts to use the new program are reinforced.

The Maintenance Phase

Typically, staff developers concentrate on the Orientation and Preparation phase, and to some extent on the Implementation Phase of the change process. Perhaps this is because, with limited resources, activities at that time have the greatest cost benefit. However, many innovative efforts are lost once teachers have settled back into their classrooms and district efforts are focused elsewhere. At the Maintenance Phase, when use is routine and no particular concerns are expressed, there are some staff development activities that could encourage continued use of the innovation.

1. Ongoing Administrative Support

Administrators need to express understanding and support for the change process if implementation is to be sustained. All studies clearly point to the need for strong administrative support from both the district and building level. Principals need to make it clear that the new program is a priority, and that teachers' needs will be attended to when expressed. Setting this tone early in the change effort is critical. In addition, the principal must be sure expectations are not too high, that teachers know he or she understands that change takes time. Such empathy is an important characteristic of facilitating principals.

But once use is established, it is easy for administrators to forget the innovation. Training is over, the "kinks" are out, teachers are not complaining. But, if use is to continue, administrators must continue to communicate that the program is important, must make certain that materials and supplies are available, and must arrange for thorough and specific training for new teachers. Being tuned into teachers' needs that do arise during this phase of the change effort is important, and arranging for people or activities to meet those needs is critical.

2. Ongoing Opportunities for Problem-Solving

Perhaps the most effective staff development activity during the Maintenance Phase is to provide teachers released time for sharing what they are doing, what has and has not worked. Because at this point teachers are often experienced and savvy, they have a knowledge base for making suggestions and solving problems which otherwise might interfere with continued use of the innovation.

The Refinement Phase

Research indicates that teachers often reach a maintenance phase, where use is routine and no particular concerns are expressed, never moving to program refinement. A variety of reasons can be advanced for this observation, including competing pressures for their time and energy. If refinement of the innovation is valued, then it is often necessary to arouse impact-oriented concerns, which may be done through staff development or related activities. In cases where more impact-oriented Stages of Concern are already being expressed by teachers, similar staff development experiences are appropriate.

1. Opportunities for Self Observation

Teachers should be taught how to evaluate their own use of the innovation. Since teachers are no longer concerned about the innovation itself, or its management, their energies can turn to its effect on the students. Both guided classroom observations and other thoughtful assessment procedures can give teachers data to refine what they are doing. Providing an opportunity for discussion of findings and next steps allows teachers to pool their knowledge and skills.

2. Individualization

Staff development activities should be targeted at individual needs, which will be different in different classrooms with different student populations and problems. During the Refinement Phase in-service activities which are varied and directed at individual needs are most effective.

3. Opportunity for Choice

Teachers should be able to choose how and when to be involved in staff development activities that increase use of the innovation. During the Refinement Phase, teachers are the best judges of what they need. Assessing needs and providing individualized options is the job of the staff developer. Choosing what best meets classroom needs from those options is the job of the teacher.

4. Opportunities for Leadership

During this phase, a few teachers at high Levels of Use will emerge who have exciting and creative ways of solving what may be common problems. When these people are identified and supported (e.g., released time or extra pay) to provide leadership for others, an effective staff development vehicle is initiated.

5. Administrative Support

Again, administrative support is critical. At the Refinement Phase, since the program is being used routinely, it is "above and beyond the call of duty" for teachers to be expected to do more. One thing the administrator might do is to eliminate, when possible, the competing pressures for teacher time and energy. If teachers are to refine a program, they should not be asked to begin a new one simultaneously. The administrator's active encouragement, support and assistance are as important here as they were in previous stages.

Examples of Effective Staff Development Design

Because of limited resources, it is rarely possible to combine all these elements in a staff development design for innovation implementation. It is possible, however, to combine many of the elements in designs which are significantly more effective than one-shot "hit and run" workshops. We describe two such designs in which we have been personally involved as either facilitator or researcher.

Implementing a District-Wide Curriculum

A large school district decided to revise its elementary science curriculum and implement the revision in 80 elementary schools. Teachers were active in the revision, which was piloted and field-tested in a variety of schools.

The implementation design called for phasing in-services, so that attention was focused on teachers within only one-third of the schools at a time. The sequence of staff development activities was:

1. Administrator orientation. Principals were provided schedules, supplies, order forms, and information about how to support teachers with different needs at different phases of the change process.

2. Teacher overviews. Two or three months before the in-service workshops began, teachers were given brief overviews of the new program, including information about the curriculum and in-service schedules, and they were provided with the new teacher's guide.

3. Teacher in-service. Teachers attended three released-time training sessions, scheduled approximately three months apart. These included active involvement in activities they would later carry out with students, providing these teachers with experience using materials and equipment. Effective classroom management techniques were also demonstrated.

These sessions were taught by other teachers who had used the curriculum in their classrooms and had planned and been trained in conducting in-service activities. During a part of the in-service days, teachers were given choices for activities in which they could participate. Choices ranged from learning better management strategies (grouping, scheduling, materials, etc.), to techniques for understanding and involving students more.

Prior to the second and third sessions, teachers were encouraged to share "war stories" and solutions to persistent problems.

4. Comfort and caring. Between in-service sessions, science department staff visited classrooms and schools where they reorganized science closets, did classroom demonstrations, worked on scheduling and classroom arrangement, and helped individual teachers with specific problems.

5. Refinement input. After two years, teachers were given the opportunity to attend in-service sessions involving techniques for grouping students and fostering cooperative learning. This provided one avenue for refinement of curriculum use.

More information about this particular example may be found in Loucks and Pratt (1979) and Pratt, Melle, Metzdorf, and Loucks (1980).

Implementing the Instructional Coordinating Teacher Program

Our second example relates to the implementation of a new approach to staff development. Here, participants in the implementation are teachers being trained in a new role. In this district, the superintendent responded to community pressure to decentralize staff development by placing a teacher freed from actual teaching in each building as an "instructional coordinating teacher." This person was not to be involved in teacher evaluation, but would help school staffs plan staff development programs, implement curricula, and in general, improve the quality of classroom instruction. The ICT's would function as teacher advisers offering support, resource materials, teaching assistance and consultation. Because teachers who might be unfamiliar with district-wide resources were going to be recruited for these positions and because these teachers would have to establish good working relationships with principals, the implementation plan called for a four-phased training design. The first phase was composed of a series of workshops to discuss the role itself; the second phase was an orientation to district resources; the third phase was targeted on the coordinating teachers' immediate concerns with beginning in the role; and, the fourth phase focused on ongoing support.

1. Workshops on Defining the Instructional Coordinating Teacher's Role. When the positions were announced, the superintendent outlined only broad parameters for the job. A series of workshops held combining persons in various roles (e.g., ICT's and building administrators), resulted in an evolving job description for the ICT's. Time was set aside at each workshop for meetings of people by roles, for individual conferences between ICT's and principals, for questions and answers, and for role-playing dilemmas the ICT's would inevitably encounter on-the-job.

2. Orientation Sessions. To help ICT's become more familiar with district resources, at a second set of meetings all central office personnel presented overviews on the services available to the ICT's, and described how to use them.

3. Intensive Preparatory Training. The third phase of staff development was planned on the basis of an extended needs assessment and interviews with ICT's. During a one-week intensive workshop, ICT's discussed strategies for working with teachers and principals, prepared resource materials, role-played consulting situations between an ICT and a teacher, discussed strategies for gaining entry and establishing trust, and continued to familiarize themselves with various curriculum areas. Some of the sessions were offered by ICT's so that participants would begin to see each other as valuable resources.

4. Initial Task Assignments. In order to give each ICT a chance to "jump right in" as a staff developer, they were given the task of planning their building's pre-school workshop in conjunction with the principal, and in some cases with a group of teachers. The teacher center and central office staff developers provided support and consultation.

5. Weekly Meetings. Throughout the first year, ICT's met weekly in support groups, sometimes by grade level, sometimes by area, to talk about problems and to share resources. The teacher center in the district maintained supplies and resource materials and, more importantly, offered support and consultation. Principals also met with staff developers during this time to talk about needs they perceived and to share suggestions they had for improving the program.

6. Refinement. Refinement activities are beginning as the program enters its second year. Teachers and administrators both are involved in the planning.

Conclusion

School improvement can be successful if staff development and support activities are designed according to the developmental needs of the participants. Early awareness activities should aim at information and personal concerns. Experiential skill development training should occur next, followed by specific and timely problem-solving. Finally, self-analytical, student-oriented, classroom application activities are merited. Add to this phasing the continuous input of participants, monitoring of progress and needs, and administrator support—and the trend of failure in innovative efforts has a significant chance of being reversed.

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Schools Where Teachers Learn: Promising Directions for Staff Development

Recent studies of teachers at work in schools have yielded the following conclusions:

- Most teachers work alone behind the closed doors of their classrooms, but many yearn for a more collegial relationship with other teachers.
- It takes effort and commitment to make schools into places where teachers grow professionally by observing and helping one another, but a number of schools around the country are succeeding.
- Universities and central office administrators who want to help teachers expand their repertoire of teaching techniques must change their approach to staff development.

INSIDE

What's Become of History?
Bringing Back History
Who's Leaving the Classroom?
Teachers' Thinking

Teachers enter their first classroom with less formal preparation than a licensed hairdresser; they learn about teaching on the job. But after they master the basics of classroom management, many veterans complain about limited opportunities for professional growth. If we are to attract good people to teaching, keep the talent we have, and improve the quality of public education, we have to make schools into places where teachers as well as students learn.

School Life and Teachers' Learning

American schools spend several billion dollars on staff development each year, most of it in the form of salary increments for teachers who take university courses and complete advanced degrees. Unfortunately, many teachers judge these courses useless; they complain that because professors know little about the schoolroom their ideas have limited practical value. In-service activities based within school districts stick closer to classroom realities, but even when teachers praise the speakers they rarely change their practices. Of 2,300 teachers polled in Pennsylvania, less than one-quarter believed that existing in-service programs met their professional needs.

Research of the last fifteen years tells us that teachers learn new teaching techniques best when they see them used in actual classrooms, when they can try them out and get pointers on their efforts, when they can discuss them with fellow teachers, and when they can integrate the techniques into existing classroom routines. Nonetheless, few schools are organized to allow observation, experimentation, coaching, or focused discussion of teaching.

The egg-carton structure of schools and the conventions of the staff room make it hard for teachers to learn much from their colleagues. Ann Lieberman of Columbia University and Lynne Miller of the South Bend, Indiana, schools, who have studied the process of school improvement extensively, describe the social realities of teaching in a way that highlights the problems. First, rewards of teaching come mostly from students, rather than from other staff. Second, teachers get little help from other adults as they learn their craft. Unlike

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doctors, who puzzle out diagnoses with experts and other novices for at least five years, teachers move swiftly from university courses to an isolated classroom and a full load of professional responsibilities; they never learn how to learn from peers. Third, colleagues expect teachers to keep both problems and successes private. The average teacher observes someone else's class only once every three years.

And yet teachers, such as those at "Riverside" School — selected by researcher Nancy Chism as a typical urban elementary school — list "interaction with colleagues" as one of their chief sources of professional growth. Chism interviewed and observed for a year to see exactly *how* the teachers at Riverside influenced one another's teaching. She saw them trading gripes, exchanging background information on difficult students, helping one another on field trips, and copying effective routines, useful dittos, and attractive bulletin board displays. She did not find them observing one another, discussing educational philosophy or child development, offering unsolicited suggestions, planning lessons together, or hashing out curriculum issues. "These kids drain you so much that we don't really want to talk shop," one teacher explained. And, in fact, their schedules allowed little time for collaborative work or searching discussions.

Talking about Teaching

Chism's description of Riverside rings true. But some schools do manage to break the mold. In 1982, Judith Warren Little reported on a study of six desegregated urban schools — three elementary and three secondary — among which she found vast differences both in student achievement and in the unwritten rules of the faculty room. While teachers at Westlake Elementary discussed classroom practice in grade-level meetings, in training sessions, in doorways, in the schoolyard, and in the staff lounge, the faculty at Carey Elementary proclaimed the lounge off-limits to all "serious" topics. In the schools where students were achieving well, teachers experimented together with new techniques and new materials. On the basis of extensive interviews and observations, Little concluded that teachers are most likely to continue to improve their teaching when they talk frequently, concretely, and precisely about classroom practice; when they are observed often and get useful critiques of their teaching; when they plan, design, study, and evaluate curriculum materials together; and when they learn new ideas and methods together.

The average teacher observes someone else's class only once every three years.

At first glance the rule looks simple: the more talk about teaching the better. But Little found that the truth was more complex. When teachers were under pressure to work together they expected a good return on their time: contacts that did not help them to teach better soured them on the whole school-improvement enterprise. At one junior high, for example, teachers wanted informed critiques of their innovative efforts, and were disappointed when the district resource person offered compliments without analysis. Said one, "He took an hour of my time which is very valuable, and I don't mind but I don't think I got anything constructive out of it."

So, what were the ingredients of useful talk? First, it focused closely on specific practices or materials, allowing participants to examine a particular issue critically while avoiding global judgments of a teacher's competence. Second, it included most of the school staff, and not just a small group or team. Third, it was central to the job of teaching in that school — evaluations, release time, and promotions all hinged on teachers' participation in school-based staff-development activities. And fourth, teachers saw the exchanges as reciprocal, even when they involved people with different standing in the hierarchy. Reciprocity meant, for example, that principals worked as hard at observing a class as teachers worked at teaching it, and that both displayed humility in their efforts to disentangle what worked from what did not.

Talking about the way you teach is scary: "close to the classroom," declares Little, "is close to the bone." It is therefore particularly interesting that even in schools where privacy prevailed — schools more like Chism's Riverside — teachers were enthusiastic about the idea of working together. They simply doubted that their principal and colleagues had the skills to observe, advise, and act as partners.

Their concerns are well founded. The norm of privacy protects teachers against clumsy, ignorant intrusions, and it provides space for the vital relationships between students and teachers to grow. But many teachers also experience privacy as isolation. How can we create opportunities for teachers to study their craft together — schools where improvement need not be wholly a bootstraps operation?

Fostering Collegiality and Experimentation

The principal can play a key role in establishing and sustaining collegial relations, mutual observation, and

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conversations about teaching. At Riverside, where collegiality now means sharing dittos and discussing problem students, every teacher reminisced nostalgically (and without prompting) about the previous year, when a "cadet" principal had organized regular grade-level meetings at which colleagues had discussed instructional concerns. Teachers said these gatherings renewed their spirits, enriched their teaching, and raised questions that spilled over into the staff lounge. No one resented staying after school to attend. Nonetheless, the meetings stopped the moment this administrator left for another job.

In the schools where students were achieving well, teachers experimented together with new techniques and new materials.

Implicit administrative support for mutual observation and cooperative planning is not enough. Teachers have many *stated* obligations that compete for their time and energy, so principals must explicitly endorse collegial work and build time for it into the master schedule. Housekeeping arrangements have both practical and symbolic importance. For example, Little describes the duplicating facilities in two large secondary schools. In the high school teachers spent their free periods in long lines, waiting to use one of two small copiers. At the junior high two aides filled xeroxing requests and kept the machine in working order; teachers often used their free periods for departmental work groups.

In schools where Little has seen experimentation, principals also observe teachers often, and talk to them about what they see. The administrators at one high school completed nearly five hundred structured observations per year on a faculty of fifty; at a nearby junior high school each administrator observed classrooms for several periods each day. In both schools, observers routinely returned to the same class for four or five consecutive meetings, taking detailed notes that would guide their conferences with teachers. Teachers reported that these conferences had increased their technical competence and helped them to think about theoretical issues in a more sophisticated way.

Most principals could not devote this much time to observation even if they had the skills. Peer coaching can take up the slack. Research indicates that when teachers who have studied new teaching techniques observe and discuss one another's efforts to use what they have learned, they use the new strategies more effectively and appropriately than colleagues who try out the new ideas in isolation. Perhaps more important, mutual coaching shows participants that they can continue to improve their teaching and thus helps to create schools where teachers expect to study together, experiment, make mistakes — and keep learning.

But none of this is easy to arrange. A principal who spends a third of her time in classrooms must put many other duties — and central office directives — on the back burner. She must learn how to talk usefully about instruction or she will waste everyone's time. Teachers who venture into their colleagues' territory must relinquish valuable planning or tutoring periods, and must learn observational skills.

In order to make mutual observation valuable, teachers need a focus and a context of shared concerns. When the principal of one secondary school ordered his faculty to begin visiting one another's classes, teachers wanted their hours back: not knowing what to look for, they learned nothing they could use in their own classrooms. In contrast, when staff developer Jonathan Saphier asked participants in an in-service course to work in pairs, observing and discussing each other's efforts to try something new, even his critics spoke of "walls tumbling down" and problems solved. The focus on a defined experimental effort made the exchanges useful.

Exploring Research Together

Some teachers and principals find the impetus for experimentation in a particular program for school change. Teachers at Westlake focused their conversations around the research on mastery learning; others try to implement the recommendations of the "effective teaching" literature. But many schools manage to make peer observation work without seeking consensus on a particular definition of excellence.

Principals must explicitly endorse collegial work and build time for it into the master schedule.

Once the idea of joint inquiry takes hold, groups of teachers may organize around particular issues: how can we use new research on teaching writing? can we improve girls' math achievement? Little reports that, in the Colorado schools she has studied, such groups typically work on a problem for about two years, first exploring the research, then experimenting in the classroom, and eventually offering an in-service course for interested colleagues. They give one another the help that is essential to any effort to translate research findings into practice.

Terms like "deadwood" and "burnout" carry the implicit message that teaching snuffs the life out of people, that schools cannot return what they drain out. But research on the school as a workplace proves that some schools — elementary and secondary, urban and suburban — give teachers a feeling that they, like their students, are learning and growing. And, according to Magdalene Lampert of Michigan State University's Institute for Research on Teaching, when teachers see *themselves* as learners, they understand the learning tasks of their students better.

The research suggests some obvious ways to encourage collegiality and experimentation:

- Administrators should prescribe less, explicitly encourage experimentation and teacher-run research, and create real opportunities for curriculum development.
- School boards should hire principals who teach openness and respect for criticism by example.
- Superintendents should put staff-development funds into teacher-designed and teacher-run in-service courses.
- Staff developers should teach administrators how to conduct conferences that examine practices closely without undermining the practitioner's confidence.
- Principals should create time for teachers to plan jointly, to observe one another, and to discuss what they see.
- District administrators should protect collegial accomplishments from the staff shifts that so often unravel years of hard work.
- Universities should teach peer-coaching skills and encourage groups of teachers to undertake school-based research projects as part of their coursework.
- Teachers should examine the unwritten rules of their staff room and decide what, if anything, they would like to change.

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What's Become of History?

As an academic hybrid called social studies became popular in U.S. schools in the 1920s and '30s, the study of history lost its privileged place in the high school curriculum. Even today we collect little information about how much students are learning about the past. And until recently, we have given little thought to whether they ought to be learning more. What is the state of history teaching today?

The History of Teaching History

By the late 1800s, history had become a well-established subject in public schools. In 1893 and 1899 national commissions reviewed the burgeoning high school curriculum and recommended extensive study of history, beginning with biography and mythology in the fifth and sixth grades, then progressing to ancient, modern European, English, and U.S. history. One advocated intensive study of a special historical topic for all twelfth graders. Both panels criticized rote memorization of meaningless facts, and both urged improvements in the preparation of history teachers.

But other forces were also gathering momentum. From 1890 to 1940, as immigrants flocked to U.S. cities from overseas and from America's hinterland, high school enrollments doubled every decade. Some of the new students were eager for book-learning, others treated school as a place to pass the time until they were old enough to find work in rapidly changing industries. Caught off-guard by the number and diversity of their new students, educators scrambled to respond. They diversified the curriculum, eliminating courses in the classics or retaining them only for college-bound students. "Useful" courses with social or vocational aims replaced traditional academic ones.

History lost ground quickly. Secondary schools that in 1915 had offered a four-year course in history and required their students to take at least ancient and American history were, by the late 1930s, relaxing requirements and offering a smorgasbord of social studies courses including psychology, social adjustment, and economics. Some history remained on the menu, but in the rush to teach practical lessons about community, workplace, and family, few saw the value of studying the past.

In the post-Sputnik years university

professors with federal funding tried to reshape the high school curriculum. In history, these academics sought to inspire students to historical inquiry and teach them to "think like historians." But three large studies in the mid-1970s showed that the new materials flopped in the classroom. Teachers, who had not been consulted during the development of the curricula, found them too scholarly and remote from their students' — and perhaps their own — interests. No one trained the teachers to use the "inquiry" methods the reformers recommended. The new books sat on the shelves, while traditional texts, combined with lecture and question-and-answer recitation, continued to shape the courses.

Today, American history is the one history course required in most secondary schools. A 1985 report by the National Council for the Social Studies laments the decline of two other traditional courses: world history in high school and U.S. history in junior high. Since 1980, a dozen states have increased their graduation requirements in social studies, but we have no way at present of knowing whether students are taking more history.

(continued on next page)

Bringing Back History

The experience of this century suggests two lessons for those who would bring back history: reforms fail if they ignore what teachers know about schools and children, and teachers need ongoing support to maintain and extend their knowledge of their discipline. Two current efforts build creatively on these insights.

National History Day

Ten years ago the history faculty of Case Western Reserve University started a pilot program to bridge the gap between scholarly historians and history teachers in public schools. An initial effort involving 129 students in Cleveland has mushroomed into a National History Day (NHD) competition with 150,000 entrants in grades six through twelve.

History Day works because it excites and supports teachers; many states hold teacher workshops, and the NHD office distributes bibliographic guides and thematic materials to all participating teachers. Barbara Finkelstein of the University of Maryland leapt at the chance to direct the teacher-training component because it gives her a way to disseminate the last two decades of research on social history and to interest teachers and students in using oral histories, artifacts, and literature as well as textbooks.

NHD encourages students to do original research and to use local resources. An annual theme — "Triumph and Tragedy" in 1985, "Conflict and Compromise" in 1986 — provides a focus but allows contestants to choose from an endless variety of topics. In mid-June the winners of state and local competitions converge on the University of Maryland, where last year's participating students, teachers, and parents savored presentations like "A Victory for Black Equality: The Port Chicago Disaster and the Politics of Prejudice," "Eleanor of Aquitaine: Checkmate," and "Jazz: America's Musical Heartbeat." (For more information write National History Day, 11201 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, OH 44106.)

History Teaching Alliance

When James Copple left university history teaching five years ago for a job in the high school in Garden City, Kansas, he was struck by the peculiar isolation that engulfs teachers. Though inundated with how-to publications and workshops, they often become cut off from new developments in their academic field and from colleagues who share their professional interests. For Copple and his colleagues in Garden City, and for hundreds of teachers across the country, the History Teaching Alliance is just what the doctor ordered.

Launched in March 1985, the HTA is a cooperative effort of the National Council for the Social Studies, the American Historical Association, and the Organization of American Historians — three professional organizations that serve both university and high school teachers. Seeking to facilitate collaborative relationships between universities and public school districts, the Alliance now provides modest funding for twenty-five groups in twenty states, each comprising approximately fifteen high school teachers and five university professors. Groups meet for a two-week summer institute and then continue with monthly seminars during the school year. HTA provides small stipends for the project director and for the teachers, who can also earn tuition-free college credit.

Through 1987, Alliances are focusing on "The U.S. Constitution and the Rule of Law." Most universities ally themselves with public schools in the same community, but determined teachers can overcome geography if they have to: Copple has worked out a promising union between teachers in his community and the University of Kansas, seven hundred miles away in Lawrence. His group will travel to the Lawrence campus for two weeks of summer study with a constitutional scholar, and university faculty will reciprocate with four two-day visits to the front lines of Garden City High. (For more information write History Teaching Alliance, 400 A Street, S.E., Washington, DC, 20003.)

Teachers and Textbooks

The social studies revolution has influenced not only how much history we teach but also who teaches it and how. We certify teachers of social studies, not history — and those who are licensed may have as few as two semesters of history on their college transcripts. When teachers have so little preparation in a subject, they are forced to rely almost exclusively on textbooks for their information about the topic.

Each generation learns the particular version of history contained in its textbooks. And each generation rewrites the books to reflect prevailing social and political attitudes. In the 1960s, social change that originated outside the schools prompted a dramatic rewriting of conventional texts. Women and minorities argued that previous textbooks had distorted history by telling it only from the perspective of white, middle-class men. Their protests resulted in sweeping changes: fewer traditional heroes, a less idealized version of the great melting pot, and a more honest presentation of racism, poverty, pollution, and other flaws in the American social fabric.

As political winds shifted in the late 1970s and early 1980s, advocates of a more traditional brand of history attempted, sometimes through the growing influence of textbook adoption boards, to regain some of the ground they had lost. As a result today's students learn from texts that try above all to offend no one. No longer "written" by "authors," they are instead "developed" within large publishing houses whose editors know the competition, know the adoption boards' preferences, and know how to avoid controversy.

Inadequate training, bland textbooks, and the politically sensitive nature of the subject constrain teachers' efforts to teach history well. Some manage to lead their students into creative and critical inquiry, but many find it hard to heed the turn-of-the-century commission's caution against the memorization of meaningless facts.

Is History Worth Reviving?

Research, if it would, might tell us how much history children know, how they learned it, and perhaps even how to help them learn more. Neither research nor the textbook industry can tell us what is worth knowing. As many present reforms turn toward the beacon of science and information technology, learning about the past may again look superfluous. But cultural amnesia is risky too; studying the choices of earlier generations can help us understand our own present and future as human creations, not merely as an inevitable course of events.

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For Your Education

Who's Leaving the Classroom?

Although men make up only 29 percent of the current teaching force, they account for 65 percent of those who leave the classroom for other careers. Moreover, secondary school teachers are leaving their jobs three times as fast as elementary school teachers. These conclusions come from a poll of 1,846 current and 500 former teachers, conducted from April to June 1985 by Louis Harris and Associates.

Sixty percent of former teachers changed jobs in order to improve their income. Another 36 percent fled poor working conditions: too much paperwork, too many nonteaching responsibilities, and too little control over their work lives. Fifty-seven percent of those who left — as compared to 36 percent of current teachers and 27 percent of the general population — report that as teachers they were under great stress several days a week or more. Only 22 percent of former teachers report equal stress in their new jobs.

Although several recent studies conclude that the best-qualified teachers leave in larger numbers, this poll finds the current teachers as well educated and accomplished as the ex-teachers. Most of those who get out of teaching use some of the same skills in their subsequent jobs. Over half moonlighted while still teaching, and 26 percent used experience from second jobs to find full-time positions outside the classroom. About a fifth landed executive or managerial positions, another fifth wound up in professional specialties, and more than a third moved to sales. The changes boosted their incomes 19 percent — or $4000 — per year.

Although more than half of former teachers say they miss teaching, less than a quarter expect to return to the classroom. Ninety-six percent say they are satisfied with their new job and rate its overall benefits — higher salary, less stress, greater professional prestige, greater control over their work, and greater intellectual challenge — as superior to the rewards of teaching.

For further information, see *Former Teachers of America,* the report of a survey conducted by Louis Harris and Associates, Inc., for the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, One Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10010.

Researchers Look at Teachers' Thinking

Educators have always debated the merits of different teaching strategies. In the last ten years, however, a number of researchers have shifted their focus from teachers' behavior to their thought processes. This work, reviewed by Christopher Clark and Penelope Peterson of Michigan State University in the new *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (edited by Merlin Wittrock, Macmillan, 1986) reminds us how complex the job of teaching is and suggests some limitations on prescriptions for making it more efficient.

When Teachers Plan

For three decades supervisors have told student teachers to plan each lesson in four steps: first specify objectives ("the students will be able to multiply improper fractions"); then select learning activities; then organize these activities; and finally, design a way to evaluate what students have learned.

In fact, however, few teachers seem to proceed in this way. About a dozen studies have asked teachers to think aloud as they plan, to talk about their planning, or to keep a planning journal. For most of the teachers studied, planning was a cyclical process, which started either with what they knew about students' needs and interests or with the content to be taught. Teachers specified formal objectives only after the lesson began to take shape. Few took much interest in evaluating what students had learned.

Three researchers interviewed both student teachers and experienced teachers, hoping to learn why hardly anyone plans the way the professors of education recommend. The experienced teachers believed that the linear approach made sense for novices, but less than a quarter ever used it themselves (and then only when planning a new unit). The student teachers said they used the model when their supervisors insisted, but not otherwise.

When Teachers Do Focus on Goals

Some teachers plan more the way colleges suggest: they begin with goals and think about the goals often as they map out a lesson. But a study by Clark and Peterson on teachers' in-class thinking suggests that this focus on objectives may be part of an overall approach that is not very effective — an approach that limits teachers' flexibility and gives the lesson plan too much importance.

When teachers frequently opted to ignore unacceptable behavior or puzzled expressions, student achievement suffered.

Most teachers scan the class frequently to see whether students seem to understand the lesson and whether they are behaving themselves. Usually the answer to both questions is yes, but when it is not teachers must decide whether there is something they can do, and whether or not to do it. Clark and Peterson found that when teachers frequently opted to ignore ominous signs — unacceptable behavior or puzzled expressions — student achievement suffered. This tendency to press on with the lesson plan even when alternatives exist was linked with a heavy focus on objectives during earlier planning sessions: teachers who talked more about goals while they put a lesson together clung more tenaciously to their lesson plans than teachers who focused more on students and content as they thought about what they were going to teach. And those who were less adaptable in class seemed to be less effective in conveying content.

Experience Influences Teachers' Thinking

The research shows that experienced teachers, compared to beginners, know a great deal about children in general — what they do outside of school, how many are likely to need special help, and so on — and analyze classroom events in a more sophisticated way.

But probably the most interesting difference between experienced and novice teachers concerns their responses to the cues that students provide. While all teachers reprimanded the unruly and aided the confused, experienced teachers were *five times* as likely as novices to respond to "positive cues" — a giggle of excitement, an item of news, a nod of comprehension, or an unexpected insight. With experience, it seems, teachers develop new ways of looking at teaching, ways that give their students' enthusiasms a central place in the shaping of lessons.

The research on teachers' thinking does not define better ways to teach. It does show us a bit about what teachers learn from experience and how they balance complex demands. A simple linear model of planning and a concentrated focus on objectives seem naive in the light of these studies.

At all points in the processes of planning and teaching, experienced teachers keep the responses of their particular students near the center of their minds. This is probably why staff development is most effective (see "Schools Where Teachers Learn" in this issue) when it constantly touches base with real students and classrooms.

COMING

Teenagers Working after School

Cooperative Learning

Shortages of Math and Science Teachers

Off the Presses

What Works: Research about Teaching and Learning, a report released in March 1986 by the U.S. Department of Education, crisply sets out forty-one lessons from educational research. Directed at parents, teachers, and school administrators, the little pamphlet points to a number of ways to improve children's learning. Here are three examples.

For the home:

Children who are encouraged to draw and scribble "stories" at an early age will later learn to compose more easily, more effectively, and with greater confidence than children who do not have this encouragement.

Even toddlers, who can hardly hold a crayon or pencil, are eager to "write" long before they acquire the skills in kindergarten that formally prepare them to read and write.

Studies of very young children show that their carefully formed scrawls have meaning to them, and that this writing actually helps them develop language skills. Research suggests that the best way to help children at this stage of their development as writers is to respond to the ideas they are trying to express.

Very young children take the first steps toward writing by drawing and scribbling or, if they cannot use a pencil, they may use plastic or metal letters on a felt or magnetic board. Some preschoolers may write on toy typewriters; others may dictate stories into a tape recorder or to an adult, who writes them down and reads them back. For this reason, it is best to focus on the intended meaning of what very young children write, rather than on the appearance of the writing.

Children become more effective writers when parents and teachers encourage them to choose the topics they write about, then leave them alone to exercise their own creativity. The industriousness of such children has prompted one researcher to comment that they "violate the child labor laws."

For the classroom:

Although students need to learn how to find exact answers to arithmetic problems, good math students also learn the helpful skill of estimating answers. This skill can be taught.

Many people can tell almost immediately when a total seems right or wrong. They may not realize it, but they are using a math skill called estimating.

Estimating can also be valuable to children learning math.

When students can make good estimates of the answer to an arithmetic problem, it shows they understand the problem. This skill leads them to reject unreasonable answers and to know whether they are "in the ballpark."

Research has identified three key steps used by good estimators; these can be taught to all students:

- Good estimators begin by altering numbers to more manageable forms — by rounding, for example.
- They change parts of a problem into forms they can handle more easily. In a problem with several steps, they may rearrange the steps to make estimation easier.
- They also adjust two numbers at a time when making their estimates. Rounding one number higher and one number lower is an example of this technique.

Before students can become good at estimating, they need to have quick, accurate recall of basic facts. They also need a good grasp of the place value system (ones, tens, hundreds, etc.).

Estimating is a practical skill; for example, it comes in very handy when shopping. It can also help students in many areas of mathematics and science that they will study in the future.

For the principal:

Unexcused absences decrease when parents are promptly informed that their children are not attending school.

Absences are a major problem at all levels of school. Students who miss a lesson lose an opportunity to learn. Too many missed opportunities can result in failure, dropping out of school, or both. Research indicates parents want to hear promptly if their children have poor grades, are creating discipline problems, or have unexcused absences.

Schools have different ways of letting parents know when their children aren't in school. Some use staff members to check attendance records and phone the parents of absent students. Others have begun using automatic calling devices that leave a recorded message with parents. The usual message is a request to contact the school about the absence. These devices can be programmed to call back if no answer is received. Schools using such devices report substantial increases in attendance.

For a free copy of *What Works*, write the Consumer Information Center, Pueblo, Colorado 81009.

TERRY M. WILDMAN AND JERRY A. NILES

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Essentials of Professional Growth

For novices to develop into truly good teachers, they need to control their own learning and to collaborate with other teachers.

Photographs by John Baird

Number
Words
fifty
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Professional growth in teaching has an emerging quality; it is a complex process that takes time. When novices have opportunities to share plans and ideas with experienced professionals, they refine their understanding of teaching.

We are facing today a crucial need to protect our investment in teachers. Not one of the proposals for reform suggests that education can survive, much less flourish, without excellence in teaching. According to the current rhetoric at least, teachers are now to be taken seriously—given more incentives, better training, improved working conditions, and higher standards.

Yet few such formulas for excellence recognize explicitly that school staffs must *grow* into excellence. We hear a great deal about what good teachers should know (e.g., Berliner 1984, Gage 1984, Shulman 1986) and do (Brophy and Good 1986, Rosenshine 1986, Rosenshine and Stevens 1986), but relatively little about how teachers *become* good teachers.

Views of Professional Learning

One of the major misconceptions about teaching, found both inside and outside the profession, is that teaching is a relatively commonplace, easy-to-learn task. The route into teaching, according to many, is (and should be) quick and easy. No one gets very excited when novices, following the briefest of orientations, are introduced to the workplace and given essentially the same responsibilities as veterans. We can alleviate any reservations we might feel about this by requiring these novices to masquerade as experts—to go through the motions that research suggests are typical of experts.

The lesson is seeing yourself as your students see you—after the class is over, on videotape, and in the company of a supportive colleague.

Commitment to long-term growth is thus bypassed simply by giving teachers methods and techniques that others have derived for them. Teachers, for the most part, are not encouraged to engage in autonomous, entrepreneurial work. They are encouraged to toe the line, to stick to the dictates of the bureaucracy, and to maintain the status quo (Callahan 1962, Darling-Hammond 1984, Fenstermacher 1979, Freedman et al. 1983, Lanier and Little 1986, Schlechty and Vance 1983, Sirotnik 1983, Sykes 1983, Wise 1979, and Zumwalt 1982).

We blame narrowly drawn conceptions of teaching on faulty or incomplete models of the teacher as learner. In the psychological and developmental literature, for example, it is common knowledge that novices do not learn simply by copying or modeling what experts do. In contrast to the notion that teaching expertise can be quickly acquired by any reasonably intelligent individual, research on human learning implies that professional growth in teaching has an emerging quality, that the process takes substantial time, and that complex understandings and skills follow developmental patterns that have been understood in psychology for years but rarely applied to the training of teachers. Our view of the mind-set required to understand the making of a professional teacher corresponds closely with that of Donald Norman (1978).

> I do not care about simple learning. I am not interested in the kind of learning that only takes 30 minutes. I want to understand real learning, the kind we all do during the course of our lives, the kind of learning that takes years to accomplish and that may, indeed, never be completed. I want to understand the learning of complex topics. A complex topic is one with such a rich set of conceptual structures that it requires learning periods measured in weeks or even years. The learning of complex topics differs from the learning that can be completed in minutes. I have estimated that to become an expert in a complex topic requires at least 5,000 hours of study. Where does this estimate come from? I made it up. But it is remarkably robust, having been defended for a wide variety of topics (p. 39).

Mechanisms for Learning

Certainly teaching is one such activity in which thousands of hours are spent acquiring a knowledge base, a set of skills (some of which eventually become routine), and the ability to behave in what we will call a deliberative, decision-making manner. Thus, it simply doesn't work to tell young, inexperienced teachers to behave as experts do. However, we can guide and assist in their development if we know and are sensitive to the phases and processes that occur over time.

The exact nature of the route from novice to expert is open to continuing debate, of course, but Norman (1978) and Rumelhart and Norman (1979) provide potentially useful ways of thinking about the process as it takes place during a period of several years. Essentially they propose that the learning of a complex topic involves the cyclical interplay of three independent learning mechanisms: accretion, restructuring, and tuning. Experience, or new knowledge, is initially preserved through associations with existing schemas or memory networks. Norman refers to this rather straightforward accumulation of knowledge as *accretion*. Learning via this mode is enhanced through standard information-processing strategies such as elaborative rehearsal, use of imagery, and construction of temporary frameworks

"We hear a great deal about what good teachers should know and do, but relatively little about how teachers become good teachers."

such as scripts, plans, and the like. A good example of the process of accretion is a teacher who remembers that a set of new procedures has the same format as a routine procedure already in his or her repertoire.

For the novice in particular, existing memory units often are not good "hosts" for new information or experiences; hence the need for a second learning mechanism called *restructuring*. Restructuring involves the creation of new memory structures or the modification of old ones. It is mainly through such restructuring activities that new understandings emerge. Examples from teaching might include the additional understandings that accrue from the adoption of different metaphors of teaching (e.g., executive, decision maker, innovator, problem solver). Restructuring episodes or phases are generally followed by enhanced capability for accretion (i.e., the addition of more new information), thus illustrating the cyclical and interdependent nature of the two learning mechanisms.

Finally, in much the same way that motor skills are perfected through practice, one could think of "fine tuning" knowledge or procedural schemas about teaching. This third mechanism, *tuning*, would show up as increments in speed, elaboration, flexibility, smoothness, and the like.

Probably not by accident, these learning processes are quite akin to the Piagetian view of learning and development. Within either conception (Piaget's or Norman's) learning involves the coordination of uniquely different but compatible activities (i.e., assimilation-accommodation or accretion-restructuring). Further, special environmental conditions are necessary to drive the particular phases or learning episodes. In the Piagetian sense, for example, conditions of disequilibrium are associated with advances in schema development (e.g., in striving for a state of adaptation, individuals will change as necessary to "accommodate" to new, conflicting experiences). Norman proposes similarly that "critical confusion" is a state frequently encountered in the learning of complex tasks. The learner's effort to puzzle out how to accomplish some new goal effectively promotes new understandings. Teachers' growth in particular may be intimately tied to the ways in which they handle confusion, ambiguity, and conflicting goals.

Viewing the acquisition of teaching competence from a cognitive developmental perspective accounts for and helps us appreciate the continuing effort that is required to develop expertise. Complex understandings must be constructed from experience, and because experience can be constructed and reconstructed in many ways, the process is rarely ever finished.

Conditions for Growth

Viewing professional growth from a learning perspective forces us to consider seriously the conditions under which teachers learn about and from their teaching. Three conditions are essential: autonomy, collaboration, and time.

Autonomy. Complex learning demands that learners have substantial freedom to direct their own growth. To suggest otherwise is to miss the point of several dozen years of research and exploration into human learning and development. Good problems, information-rich environments, and requisite cognitive skills are all crucial to professional growth, but without sufficient latitude for exploration and the independent testing of alternatives, one's growth opportunities are severely limited. Increments in cognitive growth, positive self-concepts, and a feeling of power over one's own learning are all expected outcomes when learners (students or teachers) exercise responsibility for their own growth.

Quite the opposite effects occur when systems of accountability replace systems of responsibility in a profession. A particularly vivid account of how teaching affects teachers comes from the work of the Boston Women's Teachers Group (Freedman et al. 1983). Drawing from their interview protocols with teachers, these researchers point to persistent tensions or discrepancies between idealized visions of teachers as professionals and the barriers to professional growth that exist within the hierarchically organized, technologically oriented structure of schools. They argue convincingly that teacher burnout is not inevitable but is a condition of frustration arising when intelligent, motivated teachers find little opportunity to exercise professional judgment. Ironically, as public policy tightens its screws on teacher behavior—presumably to compensate for perceived weaknesses in the teaching force—the contradictions and dilemmas for teachers are only deepened. (See Sykes 1983 and Wise 1979 for a more elaborate analysis of this problem.)

Interestingly, this vicious cycle may be avoidable if one believes Richard Elmore's (1983) persuasive case for how policymakers and school leaders can actually increase their influence and control by relaxing accountability systems and delegating more authority at the point of program implementation (see also Berman and McLaughlin 1978). The delegation of intellectual control at the level of the teacher, as we see it, has the potential to promote and sustain real learning because it fosters individual motivation and builds self-confidence.

One of the best examples of the effects of autonomous learning is the analysis of successful business practices by Peters and Waterman (1982) in their best-selling *In Search of Excellence*. They emphasize repeatedly that the most successful companies in our society construct and nurture a culture for learning that is characterized by individual experimentation and problem solving rather than formal, hierarchically driven personnel development efforts. It seems that schools would also be ideal places to create such cultures for students and teachers. Our own work with beginning and mentor teachers (Wildman and Niles 1986) has strengthened our view that teachers are willing and indeed capable of directing their own learning. Within the environments we have constructed, teachers consistently reveal to us an extensive knowledge base about teaching, a refreshing creativity in adapting to new responsibilities, and a reassuring penchant for quality.

Collaboration. Given that learning to teach is a complex, time-consuming, and difficult process, over time the cognitive as well as emotional demands on the individual can become quite severe. A collaborative work environment provides a condition for learning that can accommodate both

Peters and Waterman's In Search of Excellence *reminds us that the most successful corporations nurture individual experimentation and problem solving, rather than formal, hierarchically driven personnel development. Taking a page from that book, a teacher listens to an audiotaped lesson, identifies personal teaching issues, and develops a problem-solving strategy.*

of these side effects of complex learning (Niles and Lalik 1985). Participation in cooperative, collegial groups can expand teachers' levels of expertise by supplying a source of intellectual provocation and new ideas (e.g., Little 1982 and Shulman and Carey 1984). Additionally, collaboration breaks the grip of psychological isolation from other adults that characterizes the teacher's workplace (Sarason 1971) and creates a forum for teachers to publicly test their models or ideas about teaching (Lortie 1975). Finally, a collaborative group can furnish the emotional support and encouragement teachers need to cope with the risk that is inherently involved in learning to teach well. Colleagues can demonstrate to one another that they value attempts at growth and reassure group members that the effort and pain are worth it (Nemser 1983).

Collaboration naturally complements autonomy. Freedom to direct one's own learning is a vital aspect of collaboration. Collegial groups must be flexible in their composition and purpose. They must form and disintegrate based on the needs of individual teachers. And it is teachers who must decide on the specifics of their collaboration. Control of collegiality, either externally or hierarchically, is antithetical to the basic concept. Professionals cannot be forced to be collegial.

Time. From our discussions of the nature of complex learning and the maintenance of autonomy and collaboration, it should be no surprise that time is a critical resource for learning to teach. Efforts at professional development that ignore this fundamental relationship between time and complex learning are likely to yield negligible or even negative results. Unfortunately, in our research concerning teachers' exercise of autonomy and the development of collaborative relationships, we have found no easy answers about how to build additional time into teachers' already crowded schedules. Finding more time for teacher growth obviously involves increased costs, but time-efficient staff development efforts that do not produce teacher learning are

Table 1
Profiles of Professional Development Styles and Characteristics Consistent with Different Conceptions of Personal Growth

Ideal trainer qualities given current educational reform hysteria	Ideal trainer qualities given present analysis of teacher-centered growth
Knowledge	
• Has access to knowledge base on successful teaching	• Has access to knowledge base on successful teaching
	• Understands what teachers know and believe about successful teaching
	• Understands ways of knowing
Communication Skills/Priorities	
• Demonstrates powerful communication style in conveying information to teachers	• Facilitates teacher reflection of research findings
	• Bases communication on what teachers already know
	• Demonstrates good listening skills
• Demonstrates desire for teachers to adopt information being conveyed	• Demonstrates desire for teachers to adapt findings to their own purposes
• Uses strategies associated with good salesmanship and showmanship	• Focuses on creating low-risk training settings
	• Exhibits patience, knowing that growth does not necessarily fit political schedules
• Demonstrates high self-confidence in terms of producing teacher change	• Demonstrates confidence in teachers' knowledge and ability to learn
Performance Criteria	
• Measures success in terms of efficiency and successful completion of individual training episodes	• Measures success in terms of gradual increments of teacher, performance, autonomy, and capacity for further growth
• Seen by school leaders as producing desired improvements in teaching efficiency/effectiveness	• Seen by school leaders as a teacher advocate who stimulates greater capacity for staff growth

clearly not cost effective. Time for teacher learning is one of the most important investments a school system can make to maintain and improve quality educational programs.

Implications for School Leaders

We have made several observations about professional growth that we believe have direct implications for school leaders in planning for and conducting their staff development enterprises. The following handful of suggestions illustrates our belief that the design of opportunities for professional growth is deceptively simple, at least in principle.

Promoting self-sufficiency. Because learning is ultimately an individual responsibility, instruction, whether for classrooms or staff development purposes, should be designed to make learners less dependent on teachers, trainers, and the curriculum. Jerome Bruner (1966), in one of his insightful essays on the nature of instruction and learning, stresses that "instruction is a provisional state that has as its object to make the learner or problem solver self-sufficient" (p. 53). If we are not careful, he suggests, "the result of instruction is to create a form of mastery that is contingent upon the perpetual presence of a teacher" (p. 53). It would be interesting to speculate on how many staff development practices in education today are designed with the purpose of ultimately making themselves obsolete.

Stimulating exploration. Autonomous learners display a strong disposition toward exploring and weighing alternatives. What drives this productive exploration across diverse learning contexts? Certainly rewards and punishments come into play, but the more enduring answer may be that humans are driven to reduce uncertainties and ambiguities. Berlyne's (1960) landmark work on curiosity, for example, shows how the proper balancing of levels of uncertainty is necessary to avoid boredom on the one hand (too little uncertainty) or anxiety and withdrawal on the other (too much uncertainty). Instructors (or staff developers) who are sensitive to the motivating qualities of uncertainty in a teacher's environment, for example, will not try to remove the uncertainty for the teacher ("I've got the answer for you"), but will try to ensure that the teacher's own exploration of alternatives is conducted with an acceptable level of risk.

Teaching is a naturally complex activity that has the potential to stimulate exploration and testing of alternatives. Why is it that so much of our activity is geared toward reducing the complexity of teaching via formulas, best practices, and legislated curriculums? We may be successful in removing much of the complexity and messiness, but in so doing we also risk destroying the ingredients of uncertainty and conflict that drive professional growth.

Knowing as a process. One final point for consideration is the distinction between knowing as process and knowing as product. Drawing again from Bruner's (1966) work we find a direct and compelling statement.

> It is the enterprise par excellence where the line between subject matter and method grows necessarily indistinct. A body of knowledge, enshrined in a university faculty and embodied in a series of authoritative volumes, is the result of much prior intellectual activity. To instruct someone in these disciplines is not a matter of getting him to commit results to mind. Rather, it is to teach him to participate in the process that makes possible the establishment of knowledge. We teach a subject not to produce little living libraries on that subject, but rather to get a student to think . . . for himself, to consider matters as an historian does, to take part in the process of knowledge-getting. Knowledge is a process, not a product (p. 72).

Today, it is possible to find neatly summarized results of research on teaching and learning in nearly every journal that reaches school-based practitioners. These summaries in turn are easily converted into performance statements by which professional actions may be judged. We must question the worth of our efforts in trying to convey such information to practitioners, for as Bruner suggests, "unless the learner also masters himself, disciplines his taste, deepens his view of the world, the 'something' that is got across is hardly worth the effort of transmission" (1966, p. 73).

"Control of collegiality, either externally or hierarchically, is antithetical to the basic concept. Professionals cannot be forced to be collegial."

A Deliberate Growth

School leaders need to examine carefully the basic premises on which their plans for school improvement are based. It is essential that the enterprise follow from a clear understanding of professional growth and how and under what conditions it occurs. Elmore (1983) makes a very practical case for more delegated authority and less hierarchical control in schools, for measures that enhance teachers' sense of efficacy and control, and for allocation of resources (including information) at the point where delivery-level expertise exists.

Table 1 is a profile of the styles of staff trainers and developers that fit well and less well with the conceptions of professional growth that we've described here. An interesting set of contrasts becomes apparent as we look at the characteristics of development personnel most likely to succeed

> **"School leaders need to carefully examine the basic premises on which their plans for school improvement are based. It is essential that the enterprise follow from a clear understanding of professional growth and how and under what conditions it occurs."**

in today's "reform" environment compared to those we believe would excel in more teacher-centered environments.

As the reform movement in education continues, we hope to see school leaders develop a greater sensitivity to the essentials of growth and to the quality of personnel necessary to facilitate such growth.☐

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Contents

Acknowledgments iv

Introduction 1

Chapter 1
The Rationale for Staff Development and the Focus of Program Content 3

- Legislative Mandates for Staff Development 3
- General Rationale for Staff Development 3
- Definition of Staff Development 4
- The Focus of Program Content 5
- Conclusion to Chapter 1 7

Chapter 2
The Management and Process of Staff Development 9

- Management at the County or District Level 9
- Management at the School-site Level 11
- Process for Carrying Out Staff Development Programs 12
- Conclusion to Chapter 2 15

Chapter 3
Analysis and Evaluation of Staff Development 16

- Analysis of Staff Development Strategies 16
- Evaluation of Staff Development Activities 17
- Criteria for a Good Staff Development Activity 18
- Conclusion to Chapter 3 19

Acknowledgments

During the past three years, many people have worked in a variety of ways on the development of this publication. However, a group that met on the Asilomar conference grounds in Pacific Grove, California, in March of 1979 was most instrumental in the development of the monograph. Emerging from that meeting were many of the concepts that are now the substance of this document. The following persons participated in the two-day session at Asilomar, and I am very grateful for their contributions: Joe Dear, David Gordon, Gerald Hamrin, Wendy Harris, Bernice Medinnis, Karl Murray, D. J. Peterson, Carl Schmitthausler, Ernie Stachowski, Robert Stahl, Barbara Stokely, Yvonne Strozier, Keith Ward, Linda Webster, John Williams, Miles Williams, and Kathy Yeates.

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481

Introduction

Many elements help to bring about improved student achievement, including such obvious elements as new teaching techniques, better materials, a good school climate, and effective staff development. Although no one element can ensure improved student performance, together they should contribute to better teaching, which is the key to improved learning. Staff development, however, is recognized as part of any overall improvement effort and is the subject of this publication.

This document contains information not only for those who make decisions about staff development at the governing board and school district levels but also for those who are responsible for designing and maintaining district and school-site programs of staff development. For the decision makers, a rationale for staff development is included; and for program developers, content, processes, and management strategies are outlined. For both groups, evaluation information is set forth.

The underlying theme of this publication is the premise that, as with any organization, successful schools must work continually to improve themselves, as set forth in Assembly Bill 65 and Assembly Bill 551.[1] An integral part of any school improvement effort is an organized, sustained, and comprehensive program of staff development.

Although the need for staff development is well recognized, as evidenced by the legislative mandates and changing social conditions, staff development has not always been a high priority for school systems. For example, Dan Lortie points out in his book, *Schoolteacher*, that school systems have seen themselves more often in the role of educating young people than in training their professional staffs.[2] And according to a State Department of Education study, "There is at present no ongoing, flowing, smoothly operating staff development organization in place in the state."[3] A study completed by the National Association of Secondary School Principals could also be interpreted as further evidence that staff development is not given a high priority by school systems.[4] The lack of comprehensive training programs for the building principal was also a conclusion of an Assembly Education Committee's report in 1978.[5]

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[1] AB 65 is the California school improvement bill that calls for staff development in carrying out the provisions of that law, and AB 551 is the California law that focuses entirely on staff development in the schools.

[2] Dan Lortie, *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977.

[3] *Recommendations for the Evaluation of Staff Development in California: Report of a Preparatory Study*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1979, p. 7.

[4] *Senior High School Principalship*. In three volumes. Reston, Va.: National Association of Secondary School Principals. (Vol. I: *The National Survey*, Edited by Thomas F. Koerner, 1978; Vol. II: *The Effective Principal* by Richard Gurton and Kenneth McIntyre, 1978; Vol. III: *The Summary Report* by Lloyd McCleary and Scott Thompson, 1979.)

[5] *The School Principal: Recommendations for Effective Leadership*. Prepared by the Assembly Education Committee's Task Force for the Improvement of Pre- and In-Service Training for Public School Administrators. Sacramento: California State Assembly, September, 1978.

In the first chapter of this monograph, the rationale for staff development is presented along with a discussion of the continuing need for staff development; citations are also given of recent legislation that highlights staff development as an important part of school improvement efforts. The categories that might be considered for the content of a staff development program are also presented in Chapter 1.

In the first part of Chapter 2, the management aspects of staff development are discussed, with suggestions on how school districts and schools might carry out a coordinated system of ongoing staff development. Some administrative responsibilities of personnel at both the district and school levels are outlined. The second part of Chapter 2 is concerned with the process of staff development, and a series of activities that take place in quality programs of staff development are listed.

In the final chapter of this monograph, the analysis and evaluation of staff development are discussed. The analysis section deals with the overall system and structure of staff development, and it poses the kinds of questions that must be asked to determine whether or not a school district or school has the structure necessary for maintaining a comprehensive program of staff development. The evaluation section is concerned with determining the outcomes of discrete programs of staff development, and this section describes strategies and criteria that should be of assistance to those with staff development evaluation responsibilities.

The purpose of staff development is to improve the effectiveness of instruction in order to promote student achievement in a wide variety of basic, academic, personal, social, and career skills and competencies.

Chapter 1

The Rationale for Staff Development and the Focus of Program Content

Schools are only as effective and efficient as the individuals who work in them. For teachers, principals, and aides to be maximally effective in their very important roles, they must not only be aware of the latest developments in their respective fields but also use those developments to upgrade their skills. The system that can ensure such awareness and that can help school staffs expand their skills is a well-organized, smoothly flowing, ongoing program of staff development that makes each member of the school staff an active participant in the program.

Legislative Mandates for Staff Development

The importance of staff development has been recognized in recent federal and state legislative measures designed to improve schools. Assembly Bill (AB) 65, the legislation that authorizes a statewide effort in California to improve the overall quality of local education practices, calls for the development of appropriate training programs to assist participants in carrying out school improvement efforts. AB 551 also is aimed at improving schools, but local school-site programs implemented under this statute are focused on the staff development phase of such school improvement activities.

Public Law 94-142, a federal measure, and AB 1250, state legislation, provide for educational programs for students with exceptional needs, and both measures recognize that the substantial changes called for in the education of these students also require programs of staff development. ESEA Title I recognizes that certain groups of youngsters have special learning needs that call for special approaches, and ESEA Title I provides for staff development activities. Programs established under the provisions of ESEA Title VII and AB 1329 are designed to meet the needs of limited- and non-English-speaking youngsters; and both the federal and state measures call for staff development. In addition to the well-known federal and state laws cited above, a recent State Department of Education study disclosed that 40 other state and federal programs call for some form of staff development.[1]

General Rationale for Staff Development

Besides the legislative mandates cited, certain additional factors call for continued training of all school personnel. For example, declining enrollments have meant that fewer new teachers, with accompanying new techniques and strategies, have been entering the field. As another example, the increased use of aides and volunteers has meant that these individuals and the teachers working with them have had to be trained. Important new findings in the field of pedagogy would often go by unnoticed without staff development programs. Further, constantly changing community environments create needs for continued staff education in order for schools to be responsive to the needs of changing student populations.

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[1] *Recommendations for the Evaluation of Staff Development in California.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1979.

"Staff development" is ongoing education and training activities which are planned, carried out, and evaluated for the purpose of improving job-related skills.

On a broader level, continuing sociological and technological developments are changing the environments of all institutions, whether they be schools, factories, or families. For those working in schools or school districts to understand and cope with broad issues emerging in society, it is necessary that time and effort be spent analyzing and discussing these major trends and their impact on schools and learning.

Definition of Staff Development

A question often asked is "What is staff development?" And no simple, one sentence definition can answer that question. However, the regulations accompanying AB 551 give the following comprehensive definition:

> "Staff development" is ongoing education and training activities which are planned, carried out, and evaluated for the purpose of improving the job-related skills of principals, teachers, instructional aides, classroom volunteers, and other student support personnel who regularly serve students in kindergarten through grade twelve. Staff development includes training and education in the following areas:
>
> (1) Program planning, development, implementation, and evaluation;
> (2) Disciplines or bodies of knowledge;
> (3) Instructional skills and abilities; and
> (4) Human development and counseling skills.
>
> The purpose of staff development is to improve the effectiveness of instruction in order to promote student achievement in a wide variety of basic, academic, personal, social, and career skills and competencies.[2]

The accepted legislative definition for staff development is quite broad, and actual training activities can take many forms—the more traditional, of course, being workshops, lectures, and seminars. Staff development can also be a group of faculty members who analyze a school-site plan and, thereby, develop greater insights about themselves and gain greater knowledge of the problems confronting the school as a whole. Since staff development is seen not only as a need of the individual but also as a total organizational need in school improvement, a comprehensive school-site program of staff development is made up of a great variety of activites that meet both the individual's and the total organization's needs.

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[2] California Administrative Code, Title 5, Education, Section 4100.

The Focus of Program Content

With a growing recognition of the need for staff development as part of the effort to improve education for youngsters, determining the exact content of such programs is a major consideration of those responsible for such activities. A common complaint about many training programs is that they do not deal with the issues and problems teachers confront in the classroom. Therefore, a general rule is that those who receive the training should help plan, implement, and evaluate the training. The need for such participation is buttressed in AB 65 and AB 551, both of which call for school-site groups to be involved in organizing the schools' staff development activities.

As participation is key to planning a training program, so are a clear focus and clearly established outcomes of the program. It is imperative to establish a definite focus for a staff development program, because with the proliferation of demands related to subject matter content, pedagogy, and group process skills, it would be easy for programs of staff development to become diffuse, fragmented, and directionless. The key to determining the focus and content are the goals established as part of the overall school improvement effort.

As discrete activities are developed for staff development, a variety of areas can be explored. For example, studying various possibilities for content of a staff development program has a two-fold effect: (1) it establishes more closely an overall rationale for all staff development; and (2) it helps to focus discrete activities on a particular area.

Outlined below are eight areas that a faculty-at-large or those responsible for staff development may wish to examine as they begin to think about the content and direction of their own staff activities. These areas should be seen simply as indicators, and faculties will, of course, want to examine certain areas more deeply than others, depending on their school, community, and individual staff needs. By examining in detail these and possibly other areas, staffs will be able to build programs that uniquely meet their needs:

1. Knowledge of disciplines. Almost no major discipline, particularly in the physical and natural sciences, has not had some new development in recent years. This is equally true in social studies, as new interpretations of past events continue to emerge. New findings have also emerged in the teaching of reading and in vocational education. In this age of changing technology, keeping up with one's discipline, regardless of the grade level, is an area that warrants continued attention.

Those who receive the training should help plan, implement, and evaluate the training.

2. Instructional skills. With the development of new research and more sophisticated educational tools, many avenues are available for upgrading one's teaching skills. The growing emphasis on bilingual education and the increased introduction of youngsters with exceptional needs into the regular classroom, too, call for unique teaching skills that have not been part of the typical teacher's training program. Often, pre-service training efforts have been minimal, because it is assumed that the necessary learning will occur "on the job"; too often this on-the-job training has not materialized.

Recent studies point out that very few school faculties in the country have well-designed and ongoing programs for upgrading classroom teaching skills.[5] Most teachers are not part of a system in which instruction is viewed and analyzed by others who are also capable of making observations that will aid teachers in improving their skills and expanding their teaching strategies. Teachers who are a part of designing such a system and who understand its intent as broader than traditional programs of evaluation have found organized programs of peer analysis and support to be very useful in improving instruction.

The involvement of parents, volunteers, and aides as participants in the educational process has created the need for newer management skills.

3. Community knowledge. Very few stable communities exist in California today. Constant shifts in population often introduce whole new culture groups with different views of education. Schools must be aware of these population dynamics, and they must learn how to deal successfully with the changing environment. Schools may also have to assess their communities' needs to determine how the environment is changing; and then curriculum content and methods of teaching may have to be altered to reflect the needs of a changing community.

4. Organizational knowledge. Besides knowing their student and community environment, school personnel have to be familiar with their organizational environment. A good school is also a healthy organization with a sense of community, openness, and mutual trust; and practitioners and researchers have learned that this environment does not happen accidentally. To attain or maintain a healthy organizational climate, a staff must gain an understanding of organizational behavior and develop the skills necessary to work effectively in an organization. An understanding of what makes a good organization and what type of organizational behavior can be expected during the process of change are important factors to think about in any school improvement effort.

5. School program management skills. As part of the school improvement effort, many new activities have been introduced into the management of today's schools, such as school-site planning, program development and implementation, and evaluation. The involvement of parents, volunteers, and aides as participants in the educational process has also created the need for newer management skills that may not be part of a teacher's or principal's previous training. A part of a school improvement effort may well be concomitant training in program management techniques. The staff may need training in how to develop a program, how to implement it, how to evaluate it, and how to work with the expanded clientele who now participate in these activities—the aides and volunteers.

6. Group process skills. School-site planning and program development involve people working in groups, and few organizations have experts with group decision-making skills. Those people working on the planning and program development may need some training in how to arrive at consensus and, thus, to avoid conflicts that split a group into unworkable, unproductive factions. Training may be necessary for the group to know how to identify a problem and to take steps to resolve it, while at the same time maintaining a cohesive school community with a healthy climate.

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[5] See footnotes 2, 3, 4, and 5 in the Introduction section of this monograph.

7. *Human development and counseling skills.* Two of the most important roles for the teacher or principal deal with human development and counseling skills: (1) managing the interpersonal actions between the teacher/principal and the individual student; and (2) establishing and maintaining a classroom or school environment that nurtures education. These same skills are also needed in dealing with colleagues and parents. Although most teachers and principals probably took a course in psychology in basic teacher training, many of them do not have adequate human development and counseling skills. Perhaps additional training will be necessary to help them develop these important skills.

8. *Changing principal's skills.* The principal, too, has a recognized need for training programs. The changing skills needed by the principal to lead today's schools were pinpointed by the California Assembly Education Committee's Task Force for the Improvement of Pre- and In-Service Training for Public School Administrators, and a recommendation of the group was the establishment of programs of staff development aimed specifically at the principal.

In its report the committee reported that:

> Research and experience with successful California programs confirm what many administrators knew all along—effective professional development for principals is:
>
> 1. Systematic, concrete, and relevant to an administrator's responsibilities on the job.
> 2. Ongoing and individualized.
> 3. Flexible and able to be changed as needs change.
> 4. Conducted when participant energy level is high.
> 5. A system which makes full use of existing human, fiscal, and material resources, including the energy and experience of school principals, university faculties, and business and professional associations.
> 6. An integral part of school district policies and practices and is supported by adequate, stable funding.[4]

It is also essential that a principal be aware of his or her changing leadership role. Recommendations for assisting the principal include such activities as observing other principals, discussing mutual problems with other principals, and participating in an ongoing in-service training program.

Two of the most important roles for the teacher or principal deal with human development and counseling skills.

Conclusion to Chapter 1

The rationale for staff development has been established by state and federal legislation, changing societal conditions, and organizational theory. As a guideline for helping those responsible for staff development design a suitable program, eight possible content areas have been suggested. Since needs and circumstances of individual schools are varied, no one curriculum can be suggested for a staff development program. Rather, each program must be designed specifically for a particular group or individual and always with the overall goals of the group or person in mind.

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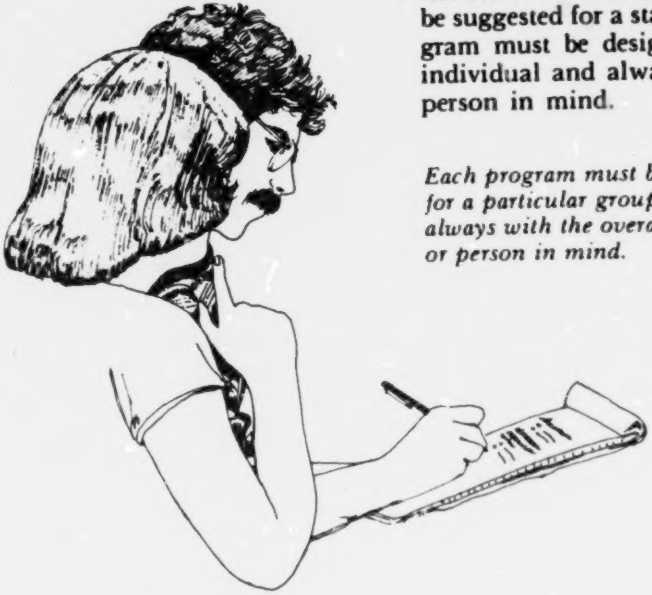
[4] *The School Principal: Recommendations for Effective Leadership.* Sacramento: California State Assembly, 1978.

488

Each program must be designed specifically for a particular group or individual and always with the overall goals of the group or person in mind.



Chapter 2

The Management and Process of Staff Development

Programs of staff development do not just emerge. There must be a system in which the programs can fit; and an organization must be in place to manage the planning, to ensure proper implementation of the program, and to provide for effective evaluation. Two levels of staff development management need to be considered—the district (or, where appropriate, county) and the school site. Assembly Bills 65 and 551 call for a district-level and a school-level plan for school improvement and staff development, respectively. The office of the county superintendent of schools can assume the school district role for smaller districts that are part of cooperatives or county consortia.

Management at the County or District Level

The major purpose of a district-level structure for staff development is to support local school-site staff development activities and, at times for purposes of economy, to coordinate districtwide staff development efforts. Several school districts have found that a district coordinating council, chaired by a central office person, can be effective in managing staff development at the district level. The higher in the administrative hierarchy this chairperson is, the more significant the unit will be viewed.

The district coordinating council is usually made up of people who have responsibility in such areas as ESEA Title I, special education (PL 94-142 and AB 1250), bilingual education, vocational education, and personnel and curriculum development; in addition the council will have representatives from school-site staff development committees or a site person with responsibility for coordinating staff development. In some cases individuals at the central office have full- or part-time responsibility for the management of the district staff development efforts.

In order to prevent an overlapping of responsibilities and fragmenting of staff development activities, the district or county staff development council could be assigned many responsibilities, such as the following:

1. A district policy for staff development. An initial responsibility of the district unit would be to prepare a district policy of staff development that would serve several purposes: (1) establish staff development as an important district function; (2) develop in the governing board and the central office an awareness of the importance of staff development; and (3) serve as a general framework for all school programs of staff development.

2. *A district plan of staff development.* The district is responsible for preparing a plan for school improvement and a plan for staff development, as called for in AB 65 and AB 551, and the staff development council could be responsible for the development of such plans. A further outcome of this planning process would be to get people together to talk about staff development in a way that would help ensure that the plan becomes a blueprint for the implementation of a staff development program. The plans should set forth necessary support systems from the central office and appropriate outside resources and provide for an evaluation of activities. The activities provided for in the plans should be consistent with the district's philosophy and school improvement objectives.

3. *Advisory role.* The staff development council could assist schools in developing school-site plans to ensure that the schools coordinate their funds and activities. Since the district people would have programmatic responsibility for such activities as Title I and bilingual education, they could keep individual schools apprised of changing laws, regulations, and initiatives in staff development in their respective areas. In addition to helping with plans, council members could assist in implementing and evaluating programs at the school site and in developing site "capacity" to do this.

4. *Linkages and resources.* An important function of the district council would be to establish linkages with the growing number of outside staff development resources. These include teacher centers, bilingual and special education training centers, and additional funding sources, such as the National Endowment for the Arts and the National Endowment for the Humanities.

5. *Linkages with the superintendent, board, and outside agencies.* The staff development council would make the superintendent and local governing board aware of staff development activities and of their importance; the council would be seen as an advocate group and would serve as a link, when appropriate, with the state and county staff development counterparts.

6. *Districtwide leadership.* There may be a need for the district to initiate certain activities, such as the training of principals, developing special education experts, or providing bilingual education training; and it would be in these kinds of tasks that the staff development council could take a leadership role. It would be crucial that any districtwide effort be linked and coordinated with school-site efforts and, most importantly, that these districtwide activities be based on the needs of students and teachers.

7. *Legislation.* The district staff development council would be the group to be educated about new and existing legislation related to staff development. This could be done by maintaining liaison with local legislators, the State Department of Education, and lobbyists or legislative committees of various professional groups.

8. *Evaluation of staff development.* The staff development council would be responsible for evaluating the staff development system at the district level to see that the structure and

The staff development council's responsibilities could include the following:

- *Preparing a district policy*
- *Developing a district plan*
- *Serving as an adviser*
- *Establishing linkages*
- *Providing leadership*
- *Evaluating the system*

system were effective, that coordinating and linkage responsibilities were being carried out, and that the process for ongoing district-level evaluation and needs assessment was working.

Management at the School-site Level

AB 551 and AB 65 provide for the establishment of a school-site group that has responsibility for staff development management. How this group is organized is up to individual school staffs. However, the key elements to keep in mind in organizing the group are that the group be representative of the staff at large, be responsive to staff needs, and be given sufficient support and time to do its job properly. In practice, this group does two things: (1) establishes the management structure for programs of staff development; and (2) develops a set of activities that comprise the overall program. If the school is a large one, an individual teacher or administrator may receive released time to assist in the management of the activities. In any case, this group is the key management body for staff development efforts at the school-site level.

The key elements in organizing a school-site group are that the group be representative of the staff at large, be responsive to staff needs, and be given sufficient support and time to do its job properly.

The legislation (AB 551 and AB 65) also provides for participation of the principal or his or her designee in the operation of the school-site group. As emphasized in a major study, staff development activities tend to be more effective when the principal participates actively in all phases of these efforts.[1]

Some of the responsibilities of the school-site staff development committee are similar to district responsibilities, but at the local level. As with the district responsibilities, AB 65 and AB 551 dictate that certain activities be carried out by this local group, as outlined below:

1. A coordinated plan and discrete activities. The school-site staff development committee is responsible for developing an overall staff development plan and discrete staff development activities to carry out the plan. It is responsible for ensuring that each set of activities is of high quality and is related to the overall thrust of the local school improvement effort. It serves as a coordinating mechanism to ensure that programs sponsored through various funding programs are coordinated as a total effort rather than as fragmented programs. This group ensures that the staff development effort is an integral part of the school's management system, whether it be associated with the school improvement plan under AB 65 or the staff development effort under AB 551.

The detailed steps of developing and implementing these discrete programs are discussed later in this chapter (page *21*).

2. Outside resources and linkages. It is school-site group that seeks outside resources and establishes linkages with other units, such as the central office staff development group, state-funded resource centers, federally funded teacher centers, special education child demonstration centers, offices of county superintendents of schools, and institutions of higher education.

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[1] Paul Berman and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Factors Affecting Implementation and Continuation*, Vol. III of *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change*. Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corp., April, 1977.

3. Principal's support. The school-site staff development committee is responsible for making continued efforts to generate the principal's enthusiastic support for the overall program and to ensure his or her continued commitment to the program. This group must have time to meet at regular intervals with the principal or his or her designee. And in these meetings, the group should furnish the principal with the necessary information to ensure that programs of staff development are understood and supported at the district, county, and state levels and by the community.

4. Legislation. The school-site group has the responsibility to be familiar with new and existing legislation as related to staff development. Such awareness can come from staying in communication with district and county entities.

5. Research and literature. The school-site group has a continuing responsibility for becomng familiar with the growing research and literature related to staff development, and the district or county office staffs can help the group by identifying the latest studies and literature. Similar information is available to the group from federal teacher centers, state school resource centers, and the State Department of Education's Office of Staff Development.

6. Community knowledge and support. One of the major responsibilities of the school-site group is to ensure that the community receive information about and provide support for staff development activities. This is necessary, particularly when released time is used for staff development activities; such time is an important component of any staff development program. Parents need to know why released time is given and why substitutes are being used in order to support such staff development strategies. In the case of AB 65, the involvement and commitment of the school-site council is a basic strategy.

One of the major responsibilities of the school-site group is to ensure that the community receive information about and provide support for staff development activities.

7. Overall evaluation of staff development. In addition to evaluating individual staff development activities, the school-site staff development committee evaluates the total school staff development effort.

Process for Carrying Out Staff Development Programs

Since the heart of staff development is the individual training program, the steps in the process of planning, implementing, and evaluating such a program are vitally important and are outlined here. These steps in the process can serve as a guide to the activities that comprise a quality training program. However, they are not meant to be used as a step-by-step plan that lacks flexibility.

An initial step in the process is to review and analyze existing programs of staff development.

1. Review staff development activities. An initial step in the process is to review and analyze existing programs of staff development. In addition almost every faculty, as a group or individually, has had various types of training, and an effective staff development program should build on and benefit from what has gone on before.

2. Establish needs. An overall responsibility of a staff development committee is to conduct a needs assessment to help analyze current conditions and set program priorities. An assessment of the needs of students is encouraged by AB 65 and AB 551 as a basis for setting school improvement goals. An effective assessment includes both the expressed needs of participants and the documented needs of their students. In the case of professional staff development for teachers, participant needs might be assessed through questionnaires or interviews. Student needs might be documented through analyses of test data, attendance statistics, course evaluations, or interview results. Concerns expressed about programs by the school board, parents, community members, or other staff also provide clues about perceived student needs.

In addition to the standard needs assessment, it is important that staffs be given opportunities to raise their sights beyond their own environment to seek new ideas and different solutions to long-standing and seemingly intractable school problems. This can be done by listening to guest speakers who have dealt with similar problems reviewing pertinent research, visiting other schools that have solved similar problems, and communicating with outside agencies, such as school resource centers, teacher centers, county and state offices, and institutions of higher education.

An overall responsibility of a staff development committee is to conduct a needs assessment to help analyze current conditions and set program priorities.

From the needs, goals, and nature of the target group, the content of a staff development program can be planned.

3. Establish priorities. After the overall needs assessment has been completed and information has been secured from outside resources, the planning group must establish, with staff approval, training priorities. The goals for individual activities should be related to established school improvement and staff development goals, as called for in AB 65 and AB 551. However, the group is cautioned to make the goals realistic so that they can be reached within the period planned for.

4. Identify target group. After the three preceding steps are completed, it is necessary to identify the group that is to undergo training. Training activities can be directed at the whole faculty, or they can be set for a particular group, such as a subject matter department or specific grade levels. For each subsequent activity, the target group has to be identified.

5. Plan the content. From the needs, goals, and nature of the target group, the content of a staff development program can be planned. Through interviews and discussions with the proposed participants, their knowledge and skill levels in the area of the planned training can be assessed. It is important to remember that the program participants must feel that they have a part in developing the program; otherwise, they may not feel that the proposed training will be useful to them. If participants feel that their time is being wasted, motivation will be lost. In this planning step, it can be determined how the program will be tailored to meet the various individual needs of the participants.

6. Select training strategies. Training strategies, of course, will depend upon the goals and proposed content of the staff development program; that is, whether the training will be helping the individuals gain new information about their subject-matter disciplines, improve their problem-solving capabilities, gain an awareness of new ideas, or develop new and different instructional strategies. Awareness can be achieved through lectures, but instruction, although started with lectures, ultimately needs on-site observation, guided practice, and support. The underlying issue here, of course, is that different goals require various training strategies.

7. Identify fiscal considerations. Fiscal considerations will help determine the limits of a staff development program: outside versus inside trainers, off site versus school site, number of substitutes to be hired, and length of time for training. Sources of money available for staff development should be identified, and additional funding sources should be sought. Staff development programs need adequate fiscal support to get started and to continue.

Effective trainers model that which is being taught to the participants and use processes consistent with effective teaching and learning.

As a general rule, the training is done as close to the real situation as possible.

8. Select trainers. Trainers are selected who can handle effectively the training strategy chosen for the program and who are considered competent by the participants. In some cases prospective trainers may be called on to participate in the development of the training strategies. Effective trainers model that which is being taught to the participants and use processes consistent with effective teaching and learning. When possible, participants are given criteria of the model of teaching to be used in order to better understand it.

9. Select training site. Sites may vary according to type of activity, number of people involved, and money available for the program. As a general rule, the training is done as close to the real situation as possible—at the school site for classroom skills. Training in interpersonal and organizational skills often takes place away from the school, free from interruptions and distractions.

10. Arrange for released time for participants. The most effective training is done when the energy level of the participants is highest, and one of the best ways to do this is to provide some released time for the participants. An appropriate balance between released time as well as the individuals' "own time" should be worked out between trainers and trainees. Such time has to be in sufficient blocks to allow for continuity of training and for objectives to be met realistically. It is imperative that if released time is used, the parents are aware of it. An important ingredient of any training program includes a strategy for helping and informing community members and others to understand why "regular school time" is being used for professional staff development.

11. Design and implement evaluation strategy. It is important that an evaluation strategy be developed as part of the planning process prior to the implementation of a program. If possible, evaluation should be planned by those who set goals and plan the program, and, in any case, the evaluation strategy should be understood by the participants. This part of the process is not a one-step activity, but, rather, begins as soon as the activity begins and continues throughout the training with a final assessment at the conclusion of the activity.

12. Implement activities. In implementing the activities of a training program, one should follow the agenda as closely as possible, but maintaining flexibility for course changes if they seem appropriate. Of course, implementation and evaluation are ongoing activities. In fact, once the program is launched and training activities are developed, evaluation of the efforts becomes an integral part of the training strategy. The evaluation will help determine whether the participants' behavior has changed, the school has improved as an organization, and student learning has improved. (A detailed presentation of the evaluation process is set forth in Chapter 3.)

Conclusion to Chapter 2

A management structure at both the district and school levels is called for in the legislation. The local school is the key focus for staff development, while the district or county role is one of linkage, coordination, and support. The makeup of these management bodies will be determined by the size and needs of the school or district. An organization or system, however, is necessary at each level in order for staff development to be a continuing and sustained district and school priority.

The management of an individual staff development activity becomes a continuous cycle—from planning to implementing and evaluating and back to planning. Certain elements are integral parts of the successful process, such as clear communication, effective group skills, cooperative participation, clearly identified roles, and administrative support. Each activity, however, has to be viewed in the total context of the school's improvement efforts and the effectiveness of the contribution of the discrete activity to those efforts.

Staff Development

The management of an individual staff development activity becomes a continuous cycle—from planning to implementing and evaluating and back to planning.

Chapter 3

Analysis and Evaluation of Staff Development

The first part of this chapter is concerned with an analysis of the plans and strategies for staff development in a district or school. The second part deals with the evaluation of discrete staff development activities that comprise the operational part of a district or school staff development program.

Analysis of Staff Development Strategies

Several management strategies were suggested in Chapter 2. To analyze these strategies, one must simply ask certain basic questions. By asking the questions, which follow, one can determine whether a district or school has well-planned systems and structures for staff development, thus ensuring that an ongoing series of well-designed staff development activities are under way to meet the needs of students and school personnel:

1. Is there a policy that establishes overall directions and a district-school commitment to staff development? Is the policy definitive enough to furnish guidance and direction for those responsible for carrying out programs of staff development?

2. Is someone accountable for staff development? Depending upon the size of the district or school, does someone have a definite place in the organization with a line item in the budget for staff development? Are there provisions for this person to make a continued review of district or school staff development programs being carried on? Is this person familiar with new and existing legislation related to staff development? Is the person at a level in the organization where he or she is perceived as having influence and importance in the organization?

3. Is there a structure, such as a committee or coordinating council, with defined responsibilities for staff development? Is this group made up primarily of people who will be the participants in the staff development efforts? Is the membership of the group continuous? Is the group influential in the decision-making process relating to staff development and so perceived? Are there clear guidelines as to the decision-making role of this group? Are the relationships with the superintendent, building principal, and board clear, and is there support for staff development from these individuals?

4. Is there a school or district plan for staff development? Is the plan clear enough that one can determine that there is, indeed, an operating and systemwide staff development activity under way in the district? Does the plan set forth the necessary support systems from the central office and linkages between school and district? Does the plan provide linkages with outside resources, such as teacher centers and institutions of higher education? Does the plan provide for evaluation? Is there provision to see that activities are consistent with the district philosophy

and school improvement objectives called for in AB 65 and AB 551?

5. Is there a plan that provides for an overall analysis of strategies, structures, and evaluation of individual activities? Are the training programs meeting the objectives? Is the kind of improvement that which had been anticipated as a result of the training activities? Is the plan updated continually and improved as a result of such a scrutiny? Does each program of staff development establish criteria for effective programs of staff development?

An integral part of a staff development program evaluation is having from the outset a clear understanding of what the objectives of the discrete training program are.

Evaluation of Staff Development Activities

As noted in the introduction of this document, the staff development component is only one part of all the elements that impact on improved learning and ultimately student achievement; and, as a result, it is difficult to isolate discrete staff development activities in ways that clearly relate them to improved student performance. When a district has a program evaluation effort aimed at assessing student achievement and the school climate, staff development should be included with other components being analyzed as a part of the overall evaluation of the school improvement effort.

Attempts must be made, however, to measure the impact of discrete programs of staff development. It is suggested that the major thrust of the evaluation of staff development is identifying observable changes resulting from participation in the program, whether the changes be related to the introduction of new instructional skills, improved counseling skills, or improved group decision-making skills.

Identifying the outcomes of the program must also be seen as a function of the training; thus, at the outset it should be made clear to the participants that they are either being made aware of a new technique or strategy or are being trained and are expected to add what is taught to their repertoire of skills. Therefore, an integral part of a staff development program evaluation is having from the outset a clear understanding of what the objectives of the discrete training program are. Both those who conduct an activity and those who are clients must understand whether the program is one of creating an awareness or of developing new skills.

As a discrete program is evaluated, the evaluation starts with the very first activity and continues as long as the training continues. In other words, the first step in evaluation is establishing a clear understanding of expected outcomes, then making an analysis of the training during the activity, and, finally, determining whether the series of scheduled training events accomplished what had been projected for them. In the process, the training is continually analyzed, and the results of such analyses are made available to those responsible for its management, particularly if the training includes a series of activities over a period of time.

It may be that in the course of the training program, particularly if it is long, the objectives may have been changed along with some of the activities. It is most important that if changes are made, they are mutually agreed upon by both trainers and participants. It is equally important that the rationale for changes is made clear to those who authorized the program in the first place, such as school district governing boards and school-site councils.

An early consideration in the evaluation process is whether the evaluation is to be made by someone within the system or by someone hired from outside the system. If an outside evaluator is used, time must be taken to select appropriate people and to design carefully the specifications of a proposal. An outside evaluation will probably be more expensive than an internal evaluation, and it may be more threatening. On the other hand, it probably will have more credibility and usually will raise more questions, because outsiders will not be as familiar with the nature of the local system. Internal evaluation can be mounted more quickly, probably will be less threatening, and probably will cost less. However, fewer probing questions may be asked in an internal evaluation and, thus, the evaluation may have less credibility than an evaluation completed by an outside individual or group.

A concluding issue in the evaluation of staff development activities concerns the writing of the final report. It should be written in precise, jargon-free, understandable language. Technical research language should be reserved for researchers and not used in the evaluation report.

Criteria for a Good Staff Development Activity

Throughout this document various criteria for the management, implementation, and evaluation of staff development activities have been presented. In this section they have been distilled and enumerated for quick use in evaluating staff development activities. Some people have referred to criteria, such as those that follow, as the essential components for implementing a successful staff development program:

1. The staff development activity is related to school-site school improvement objectives.
2. The activity is related to the overall staff development program.
3. The activity has a clear focus, with goals based on the needs of youngsters and teachers.
4. The goals and objectives are clearly understood by the participants.
5. The objectives remain relevant during the training, or else they are changed.
6. The activity is designed and implemented by the participants, and they also share in the evaluation strategies.
7. A variety of activities and different teaching styles are provided in the program, and the program is individualized.
8. The program involves team building, if appropriate.
9. The staff development program has provision for and utilizes a wide variety of resources in sufficient quantity to get the job done.

10. The program's activities are carried out during released time, at least some of the time; and the principal, parents, and other necessary people, such as the superintendent and board members, are informed if released time is involved.
11. The school principal is involved in all phases of the program, including actual training when appropriate.
12. The central office staff, including the superintendent, is knowledgeable of and supports the training activity.
13. The program has a built-in, continuous, effective system of evaluation that participants and trainers understand.
14. The program directors use a variety of evaluation strategies, such as interviews, observations, and questionnaires.
15. The evaluation strategies have been designed to minimize the time participants spend in the evaluation process.
16. Quick turnaround time is planned for and used in the evaluation so that what is learned gets fed back into the program quickly.
17. There is planned follow-up, including observation of skills learned.

Conclusion to Chapter 3

Analysis and evaluation are difficult but necessary. They have to be done in an open and continuous way. They have to be conducted in a way that is understood by those who make decisions concerning staff development at the district and school-site levels, by the trainers, and by the participants. Only through a continuous process of analysis and evaluation can staff development do the job it is capable of doing for our schools, our teachers, and our children.

Only through a continuous process of analysis and evaluation can staff development do the job it is capable of doing for our schools, our teachers, and our children.

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National Staff Development Council.

Low-Cost Arrangements for Peer-Coaching

The concept of peer coaching of teaching is discussed and specific, low-cost strategies are recommended to support peer coaching.

BRUCE JOYCE
BEVERLY SHOWERS

The workplace of teachers was organized long before anyone anticipated that the lifelong study of teaching would be necessary. Now educators must face the problem of arranging for time both for ongoing training and follow-up activities, such as peer coaching. How can time be provided for the coaching of teaching? This article addresses that question and offers a set of suggestions for costless or low-cost ways of providing time for the implementation of peer coaching.

Coaching in Staff Development

In a series of previous papers, we have described research on training designed to give education personnel the opportunity to develop skills in teaching models new to them and to transfer those models (sometimes called teaching strategies) into their active teaching repertoires (Joyce & Showers, 1983; Showers, 1985).

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers are directors of Booksend Laboratories, 3830 Vine Maple, Eugene, Oregon 97405. They are specialists in the study of teaching, staff development, and the design and effects of models of teaching.

We have argued that the evidence supports two working hypotheses on which training can reasonably be based. The first is that combinations of demonstrations, practice with feedback, and the study of the rationale of the strategy, if well-executed, enable nearly all teachers to develop an initial level of skill sufficient to shape teaching episodes around the teaching models. The second hypothesis is that the transfer of these models into the teaching repertoire occurs during extensive practice in the classroom. For most teachers, about 20 or 30 trials with the new model of teaching are needed until the skill matures to the point where a comfortable, flexible level of use is achieved.

The transfer process is facilitated by the companionship of peers who help the teacher analyze teaching episodes and navigate the refinements that make the strategy a strong, smooth component of the teacher's professional repertoire. We have termed this companionship, with observation and feedback to partners, a coaching relationship. Without coaching or a provision for its equivalent, very few teachers will practice new teaching strategies until they become part of the working repertoire.

Hence, we recommend that staff development programs include demonstrations, opportunities for practice with feedback, and the study of the underlying theory of any new strategies that are the substance of the training. Furthermore, we recommend that, as initial skill is obtained, the participants be organized into teams to implement the coaching component. Within the community of peer coaches, pairs of teachers (coaching partners) visit one another and discuss how to make the strategies work. Larger teams made up of several pairs meet regularly to share successes and discuss problems, watch demonstrations, and receive advanced instruction. Until alternatives are developed, peer coaching or its equivalent appears to be essential if the investment in training is not to be lost, a loss usually attended by a sense of disillusionment and frustration.

We recommend that staff development programs include demonstrations, opportunities for practice with feedback, and the study of the underlying theory of any new strategies that are the substance of the training.

In most school settings, a number of very practical problems must be solved in order to provide the time for teachers to observe one another, discuss the model of teaching, and adapt it to their purposes and settings. These problems, of course, are products of defects in the workplace. Specifically, time for preparation of teaching or for staff development is not embedded in the work life of teachers. Thus, the implementation of any sort of on-site follow-up to training involves the development of conditions that are somewhat different from the traditions of the workplace.

Low-Cost Arrangements for Coaching

Our goal is to provide time for peer coaching. Seven strategies that provide for low-cost arrangements for peer coaching are discussed here. Each suggestion has been used in settings in the United States and Canada. Not all of them will be equally attractive to staff developers, administrators, or teachers, and not all of them can be used in any given setting. Taken together, they provide avenues through which time for peer coaching can be arranged in nearly any setting.

Our objective is to come as close as possible to a situation in which each week every teacher can observe the instruction of another professional and discuss the teaching episode and be observed himself or herself along with appropriate discussion of the instruction. For an elementary school of 20 teachers, about 20 hours each week (about one hour per teacher) would be required to sustain a consistent coaching program. Our strategies are described below in the form of actions that administrators might take to provide for low-cost arrangements for coaching.

1. **Free teachers to observe other teachers by taking their classes.** In several schools with which we are familiar, the principals teach approximately one class period each day. The average ratio of building administrators to teachers is about one to 20. Therefore, if each administrator taught one period per day, about one-fourth of the teachers would be released for a period each week. If other supervisory personnel also took a turn in the classroom on a daily or weekly basis, the benefits would increase. Administrators alone, teaching one period a day, can provide about one-fourth of the hours needed.

2. **Schedule larger than classroom-size group instruction.** In most schools, nearly all instruction is provided in classroom-sized groups of students. By bringing students together in larger groups, teachers would have time to visit one another.

In a school with which we are familiar, one of the teachers is expert in teaching children's literature. She gathers half of the upper-grade students together for an hour and a half once a week for the study of a short story or a book, sometimes showing films of the literary work. On other days, she works with the other half of the upper-grade students and groups of primary students.

Literature is not the only subject that can be handled in large groups. Science, social studies, writing, art, music, and physical education are among the subjects that are amenable. We have seen quite a number of schools in which pairs of teachers free one another regularly by teaching both classes in the subjects where they have greater strength, or simply where bringing together two classes with one teacher is as efficient as each teaching the same content to one classroom-size group. The literature teacher described earlier frees every teacher in the school for an hour and a half each week, easily meeting our objective by herself.

A number of very practical problems must be solved in order to provide the time for teachers to observe one another, discuss the model of teaching, and adapt it to their purposes and settings.

3. **Arrange for independent study and research.** Frequently, teachers need to locate and assemble information, study, and then practice instruction. Often these activities can take place in a library or a setting other than the classroom.

We know an outstanding librarian who encourages teachers to use the library as a setting for independent study and will accept 60 students at any given time, in addition to students who are there individually or in small groups. Four volunteer aides provide service to the students, check books in and out, and shelf books. If every teacher took advantage of this opportunity just once each week, our goal would be achieved.

4. **Enlist volunteer aides.** It has been well established that there are many adults in virtually every community who are willing, if not eager, to donate time to the school as an instructional aide. Some schools have recruited cadres of such people to the extent that each teacher has a staff of two aides for a half-day each week. The aides enable a number of arrangements to be made that free teachers for peer coaching. In situations where teachers have aides in the magnitude that we recommend, reaching our goal is not difficult.

By bringing students together in larger groups, teachers would have time to visit one another.

5. **Seek out student teachers.** Student teachers (and aides in some states) can be given limited certificates permitting them legal responsibility for students. We recommend student teachers be placed in teams of two or more. This enables them to coach one another and more quickly become comfortable in the classroom so they can take over instruction. If student teachers are allowed control of the classroom for one or two periods each week, they experience a greater degree of independence than when the teacher is present. This also frees cooperating teachers to join their coaching teams.

6. **Organize team teaching.** We suggested above that teachers might be paired not only for coaching but also for instruction. This would enable teachers to free one another to engage in peer-coaching observation and discussions. If the entire school employs such an arrangement, we believe the entire coaching program can be implemented. We also believe the quality of instruction will be improved.

Team teaching would enable teachers to free one another to engage in peer-coaching observation and discussions.

7. **Use audio- or videotape equipment to record lessons.** The development of the Minicourses at the Far West Laboratory (Borg, Kelly, Langer, & Gall, 1970) demonstrated how effectively teachers can use videotape to study their teaching and practice teaching skills. Although live observation should not be completely replaced by taping, many coaching sessions can be carried out with its use.

We have visited several schools where the principal or someone else tapes teachers while they are teaching. The teacher and the coaching partner can then view and discuss the tape. In several schools, the entire faculty gathers to watch tapes during faculty meetings. This certainly is not the worst use of part of the agenda of faculty meetings. Where video is used regularly, all faculty can study teaching one or more times each week.

Combining Low-Cost Options

We believe almost every school can employ several of these options. If all options were used simultaneously (which we would not recommend), our goal would be reached five or six times over.

If all else fails, one substitute teacher can free approximately six teachers per day for one class period. We recommend, however,that costless options be tried first, especially because all of them provide potential educational benefits for the children. Released time should be reserved, we believe, to free teachers for the training itself.

We are aware that circumstances in particular schools provide obstacles for each of our suggested arrangements. Some principals lack the desire or feel they lack the time to teach. Some teachers do not want aides or student teachers. Some librarians are uncomfortable with more than a few students at a time or having any students without the presence of another teacher. Some districts give aides legal responsibility for students, while others do not.

Most of these problems can be solved. Even if they are not solved, there are so many options that the general problem of "time for coaching" can be managed in nearly every school. Even a modest combination of several of these ideas can do the trick.

Also in situations where coaching is implemented on a school-wide basis, as when a group of volunteers study models of teaching new to them and coach one another, any one of these suggestions can provide time for both coaching and training.

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ANNOUNCING A NEW NSDC PUBLICATION

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by Georgea Mohlman Sparks

Well designed professional development activities are critical to the success of career ladder programs. This new 30-page NSDC publication discusses:

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This NSDC publication is adapted from a chapter in **Establishing Career Ladders in Teaching: A Guide for Policy Makers**, edited by Paul Burden and published by Charles C Thomas Publishers, 2600 South First Street, Springfield Illinois 62717, telephone (217) 789-8980.

REMOVE

Keep in mind that the number of people you invite also depends on the kind of meeting and the objective. Ten people meeting to identify a problem or five people meeting to solve it would make more sense than 30. But 20 or 30 would be appropriate for a presentation of new policy decisions or organizational changes. For motivation or inspiration, large groups generate more energy. (The larger the group, the shorter the meeting should be.)

Select the physical setting that will suit the nature of the meeting—an office, the conference room, a hotel, a restaurant, a conference center. For example, a room with a conference table conveys that people will be exchanging ideas and working together face-to-face. It fosters a sense of unity and purpose.

When people are comfortable, they tend to produce more. So choose your room to meet these needs: convenience and accessibility, comfortable seating, good ventilation, acoustics and lighting, audiovisual requirements.

The nature of the meeting determines how far ahead you have to reserve the room and notify your participants. Even for an informal, in-house meeting, 24 hours' written notice is the minimum and two or three days' notice is much better. The meeting invitation should tell the recipients briefly what they need to know (date, starting and ending times, location, agenda, objective, pre-meeting preparation), including what their role will be.

Successful meetings don't happen by magic—you make them happen. It's work. It's an art. Take time to rehearse your agenda so that you can use it as a script, not a life preserver. Practice your opening statement. How you say it and what you say will set the tone of the meeting. If you say it with a sense of mission, your people will get the message. If this is a problem-solving meeting, your opening statement should have a feeling of urgency. For example, "I'm glad you could make this meeting, because we've got to tackle this one fast. If we don't get this shipment snafu untangled by next week, we'll be up to our necks in product. We can do it. The question is *how.*"

Go through the items on your agenda. Know who's pegged to report on what. Have their names beside the items you've assigned them and leave space for your own comments, follow-ups, assignment notes. When you rehearse your meeting plan, you prepare yourself to be a more able, confident leader. ■

Elayne Snyder, the author of Speak for Yourself—With Confidence *(New American Library), is a communications specialist in New York. Her firm, Elayne Snyder Speech Consultants, coaches speakers in preparation and delivery of presentations.*

THE TALK MACHINE AND OTHER MEETING PERSONAS

People bring their personal baggage to meetings. They will unpack their meeting personalities, their company loyalties, their pet peeves, their hidden agendas and heaven knows what else at your feet. As the meeting leader, you will have to deal with all of it, most assuredly their meeting personas. Here are some ways to handle the most common ones:

The Talk Machine. This person usually has something to say all the time, about everything, whether anyone wants to hear it or not. Sometimes good ideas spill out, so you don't want to shut him up altogether. *Solution*: Communicate a sense of urgency. This tells him to make it brief. Point to your watch. Or jump in with "that's an interesting point, Charles, let's see what the others think about it." Or compliment him and tell him it might be better if he wrote down all his ideas and submitted them to the group for deeper study. Or let the group handle him.

The Silent One. A lot of people are silent in meetings most of the time, and for very good reasons. They may be listening to get the whole story; they might agree with what's being discussed; they might not have anything new to add. But the truly silent ones are a leader's concern. They might have something valuable to say, but shyness or nervousness keeps them buttoned up. *Solution:* These people lack confidence and need your support to get past their inner barriers. Call on them when you know they can shine when they answer. If their answer will give the other participants useful information, all the better. Compliment the silent one for the contribution. Use the person's name: "Excellent. Thank you, Jane."

The Argument Maker. There usually is one person in a group who loves a debate, an argument, often as a diversionary tactic. This is not the person with a legitimate complaint; this is the whiner, the truly argumentative one. *Solution:* Keep your cool. Do not take anything this person does or says personally (even if it is intended that way). Don't get involved. Instead, do the same thing you would with the legitimate complainer: Offer the argument maker's hot item (whatever) to the group. Let them thrash it out. You aid them by guiding the discussion, probing, stimulating, mediating, if necessary, in the contest of ideas.

The Suggestion Squelcher. You call a meeting so that people can share their suggestions, comments and ideas. This cross-pollination in a face-to-face meeting is to be encouraged, but the suggestion squelcher has other ideas. She tries to ridicule all suggestions—good or bad—because they are easier to deride than facts or opinions. Those who offer their suggestions do so at a risk to begin with, and if they are laughed at or put down they will no longer be a resource for ideas at your meetings. *Solution:* A leader who compliments suggestion makers, in spite of the squelcher, will get more suggestions. Tell the squelcher that all suggestions are welcome. Then put her on the spot by asking her to produce a better one than the one she just knocked down. —E.S.

Motivation

"There are two levers for moving men, interest and fear."

- Napoleon Bonaparte

The Ten Commandments for Committees

Committees are made fun of by everyone. The most famous is Milton Berle's gem: "The committee is a group of men who keep minutes and waste hours." But committees seem to be a necessary evil that organizations can't do without. What to do if you are appointed to a committee? In keeping with the reputation committees have acquired, here is a list of rules made up by a professional committeer who has successfully served on hundreds of committees:

1. Accept to serve on as many committees as possibleThis stamps you as highly in demand, makes you look very busy, while adding no real load to your work.

2. Avoid holding any specific title or responsibility as a committee member. Those who hold such titles usually end up doing all the work and taking all the blame.

3. When the committee holds a meeting, never arrive on time. Only beginners arrive to committee meetings on time.

4. Never say anything in the first half of the meetings; this stamps you as a wise observer and deep thinker. .

5. When you do say something, be as vague as possible; this will ensure no one will take issue with you or become your enemy.

6. Whenever you're faced with a difficult situation, always suggest that a sub-committee be formed to tackle the details.

7. Always be the first to move for adjournment; this will make you the most popular member.

8. From time to time voice strong concern about the committee's lack of speed and effectiveness and absence of in-depth analysis; this stamps you as the member most critical of the committee's own work, and puts you on a higher pedestal as a leader, not just a member.

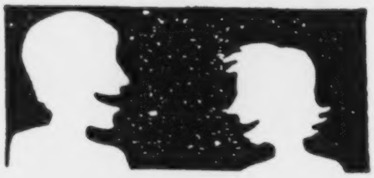
9. Always suggest that a select few of the committee members meet with the president of the organization to brief him or her on the committee's progress. Since you're the author of the suggestion, this will ensure you'll be one of the select few. Any president usually assumes that the few who come to him are the ones who really count:

10.Finally, when your good work on all of these committees puts you in the highest office of the organization, make sure to issue a decree prohibiting the formation of any committee; they are, as you very well know, a complete waste of everybody's time.

A Footnote

The above humorous rules can serve as an insight to behavior that renders group work ineffectual. The ten rules can be offered in a training session as examples of the patterns to look for and overcome in teamwork. There is nothing like humor to reinforce learning.

COMMUNICATION



"No one really listen to anyone else, and if you try it for a while you'll see why."

Business Ethics

"What is moral is what you feel good after."

- Ernest Hemingway

"Relations with superiors are the primary category of ethical conflict. Respondents frequently complained of superiors' pressure to support incorrect views, sign false documents, overlook superiors' wrong doing, and do business with superiors' friends."

- Brennere and Molander, in an article in *Harvard Business Review*

Has Your Quo Lost Its Status?

"Bureaucracy defends the status quo long past the time when the quo has lost its status."

- Lawrence J. Peter

Attribution Unknown

THE BEST LITTLE MEETINGS IN THE COMPANY

Eleven million meetings are taking place in America today. And 11 million more tomorrow. Even if 10,999,999 are doomed to be time-wasters, yours needn't be

BRAIN STORM
IAN ROSS

BY ELAYNE SNYDER

The badly run meeting is more than a bore—it's a national nuisance. It also costs companies thousands of dollars in time taken away from more productive tasks. Scrutinize your calendar: Are some of those meetings merely bad habits? Often you can make improvements.

When you call a meeting, your job is to get the best and the most out of the people you have brought together. Your meetings should have a clear purpose and serve several functions. One is making people feel part of a team. When you invite a particular group to your meeting, they get the feeling they belong. Their input has value. They have an identity. These are positive feelings you can draw on.

A team with a good manager can use its pool of knowledge about the department and company to produce better ideas, make better decisions and formulate better plans than any single person might come up with alone. But don't let these virtues run away with you.

ILLUSTRATIONS BY IAN ROSS

Next time the need for a meeting seems to arise, be tough. Ask yourself what this meeting would achieve. Write out a one-sentence meeting statement that puts your objective squarely in front of you. ("To develop at least a dozen good ways to cut operating expenses." "To assess how current projects are going and assign the next round.") Is that a reason to call people away from their work? What would happen if you didn't have the meeting? Don't overlook the time-saving use of the telephone or a memo to update schedules, remind people about company procedures or convey news.

Some meetings *are* necessary. Once you know why you need a face-to-face meeting with the special group whose expertise and actions you want, it will help you decide what kind of meeting will serve your purpose. Is it an information meeting, a problem solver, a creative meeting? Each has its own techniques.

"I've called you here today . . ."

The information you want shared might deal with progress reports that each member of the team needs to know about, or with completed projects where collective judgment will teach today and bear on tomorrow's project discussions. These are both good reasons for holding **an information meeting.** As the leader, you will guide this type of meeting with a firm hand, calling for reports and controlling the forward movement, keeping people's discussion focused on the subject.

"How can we . . ." and other problem-solving questions

Suppose you have a problem that requires team involvement. For example, "How can we coordinate manufacturing and shipping better so that we meet our deadlines?" If the solution involves your people, call a **problem-solving meeting** so they can help shape the response to the situation. Then they will have a greater commitment to their actions.

In the decision-making/problem-solving meeting, members make decisions based on facts known to or presented by the group. The leader's role is to orchestrate, probe, let the participants do the work. It takes a good listener, a diplomat, a superb questioner to get the most out of a problem-solving meeting.

July 1984.

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You begin by focusing your team on the problem and the need to resolve it: Use the meeting statement you developed. Then you lead the group members to contribute, using the question as your main tool. Here are the stages in the process:

- Make sure the problem is defined and understood. Ask questions; don't just state it.
- Make sure everyone knows what caused the problem. Ask questions, then let the discussion flow.
- Probe for all possible solutions. Try brainstorming (see creative meetings, below).
- Encourage discussion, elicit different ways of looking at the solutions. Lead your people in selecting the best ones, then rank them. Summarize the conclusions you've reached.
- Discuss and assign the implementation of the solution. Praise your participants for their accomplishment in reaching the objective.

"If we had all the money in the world . . ."

The **creative meeting** is a meeting people like. It's fun to participate in. It's challenging. It's a constructive corporate game. Advertising agencies have been using creative meetings and brainstorms for years to come up with campaigns, positions, art and copy slants. Consider it as a technique to help your company look at a problem, a product, a production method, a policy.

The heart of the creative meeting is the free-for-all called the brainstorm. It is an idea-generating process that draws on the creative juices of many people. If your business needs a fresh approach, or if you want your group to have the positive experience of thinking out loud together without restraint, try the brainstorm. For example, product managers might invent a product idea in a brainstorm and develop it into a marketable profit-maker in a series of creative meetings—taking it from idea to substance and form.

A good group size for brainstorming is five to eight people (subdivide a large group). You'll need to appoint a recorder who writes fast and legibly and who is a good listener. As leader, you say almost nothing. (Admittedly, that may be hard for a leader to do.) Instead, you focus the participants on the subject, either stating it or writing it on a blackboard or flip chart. For example, "What can we do to generate Fourth-of-July business at the hotel?" You explain that this is an idea-generating circus where *any* idea that jumps into their heads is wanted.

The goal is to get as many ideas as possible—quantity, not quality (that comes later). Tell the participants there will be no comments, no questions, no judgments—just ideas flying. The recorder will write it all down. Encourage them to piggy-back ideas one on top of the other. The ideas are owned by the group, unidentified, safe, valuable no matter how off-the-wall they seem. Here's how the process works:

- Explain the procedure and what the subject or problem is. Be specific.
- After the introduction, use mainly gestures to call in the group's ideas; point to the board or chart to remind them of the subject. Keep your facial expression neutral or use the perennial Mona Lisa smile. Otherwise your expression will comment on the participants' contributions, and you mustn't.
- The team will loosen up and let their ideas fly as soon as they are ready. Humor can break the ice, but your silence, after they are focused on the subject, will help.
- The recorder should number and record all ideas fast and accurately (even if they are abbreviated) on tacked-up newsprint or flip-chart paper. Keep the sheets hanging in view.
- When you have collected all the ideas you can, the final step is to appraise each idea critically. It's preferable to schedule the evaluation/developmental phase for another time, because people will come up with more ideas in the meanwhile. (Save the recorder's sheets.) Then discuss and assign implementation of the chosen solutions.

"Now we're going to show you how . . ."

The **training meeting** is the place to teach new people or current staff, to introduce ideas or demonstrate new techniques, to have your people try out practical ways to perform their jobs more successfully. You, as manager, can do the training or you can bring in an expert.

A training meeting is a learning laboratory. As usual, begin by stating the objective and how you're going to proceed. Then show the participants how to use the technique, in a short lecture with plenty of facts, examples and demonstrations. For example, if it's a sales-training session, tell them how to conduct a sales call. Then have your people discuss the procedure and the implications of doing it that way; have them try role-playing to get the hang of it and feel comfortable. Actually doing the exercise is the best way for people to make it part of their own behavior. Let peers give feedback and, finally, offer your constructive criticism. The exercise continues until each participant has had the hands-on training and feedback experience.

End the training meeting when you are satisfied that the participants have learned what is necessary. Tell them how well they've done. Sincere praise is a good motivator.

"Today's topics will include . . ."

Whatever the type of meeting, you will need an agenda. Writing one forces you to think through what must be covered to accomplish the objective you've crystallized in your meeting statement. Using this as a reference point, list issues, problems, suggestions, questions you feel should be discussed. Then pare down your list. Put urgent decisions or business ahead of topics that can wait. The beginning of a meeting is usually more upbeat; people feel more lively than they do toward the end. Arrange your items to take advantage of high energy and clear thinking. Some items on your agenda may divide your team, some might unite them. Be aware of these nuances. Look for unifying themes to start and end with.

It's also a good idea to put time limits on your agenda items. Naturally, you'll want to give the urgent items more time. People's energy sags, so be realistic. Limit your agenda to what can be accomplished in an hour, or an hour and a half at most.

Set the starting time by working back from a natural end point such as lunch or the end of the business day. Choose a time when people have energy. Avoid Monday morning and Friday afternoon, or the first hour after lunch.

Make information visual whenever possible. People tend to think in graphic images. Plan your visual aids in your agenda: slides, charts, overhead projections, handouts.

Your typed agenda should contain your meeting objective to rivet your participants on what you want to achieve. The body of the agenda might be divided into sections with headings such as "For Information," "For Discussion," "For Decision." If you have assigned reports, list them in order of presentation. The agenda's conclusion will remind you to summarize the meeting accomplishments, make assignments and due dates and, if necessary, schedule the next meeting. The minutes then fix accountability and provide a tool for follow-up and feedback.

"Your presence is essential . . ."

Once you know what you have to cover, you also will know whom you should invite to the meeting. Invite only those who need to be there. Ask yourself: Who has the information? Who needs it? Who carries official responsibility? Whose presence will foster a positive attitude toward the subject? Who can implement decisions or make strategic linkages?

THE ART OF RUNNING A MEETING

Everything is ready—just as you planned it. The meeting has a clear purpose, and you want everyone present to work together to accomplish the objective in a reasonable period of time. Here is how you can make the meeting go well.

1. Start on time, no matter what. If you can do something in your introduction that latecomers will be sorry they missed, all the better.

2. Be enthusiastic. It's contagious. If you seem hell-bent on accomplishing your goals, your people will be, too. Conversely, if you take a lackluster approach, they'll join right in.

3. Use body language that says you're in charge. Sit tall. Look at people directly. If you look as if you know what you are doing, the other participants will think you do.

4. Speak with authority. If you have prepared and rehearsed, you've got it made.

5. Don't pontificate. Keep the meeting moving with questions, discussion, probes and keep it on track.

6. Avoid the seven deadly sins of meeting leaders: resenting questions, monopolizing the meeting, playing comic, chastising someone in public, permitting interruptions, losing control, coming unprepared (the greatest sin).

7. Orchestrate and pace the meeting with your agenda. Call on the upbeat people, avoid lulls, don't call on two bores back-to-back, keep participants' focus on your goal.

8. Don't send a full agenda, just a brief version in the meeting invitation. Participants without an agenda in hand tend to listen more and to focus on the content and the leader. You avoid the "Oh, no, look how much we have yet to plow through" feeling and heighten interest.

9. Be diplomatic, considerate. Listen.

10. Dig for weaknesses and strengths before the final decisions are made.

11. Use humor (not jokes) that comes naturally out of the exchange. Humor is a relief.

12. Praise people. Thank them. Let them know you appreciate them. A pat on the back helps everyone work better. —E.S.

Working Woman, July 1984.

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Teacher Concerns as a Basis for Facilitating and Personalizing Staff Development

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The chorus of conversations that follows staff-development workshops aptly defines the typical frustrations in change.

Teacher: If I have to go to one more training session where they stick 100 of us in an auditorium and lecture about . . .

Staff Developer: It seems that no matter what kinds of activities we design, we can't win.

Teacher: I need some good ideas for what to do on Monday, not more theory.

Staff Developer: I'm working with a school that's in the first year of a major change, and it seems they'll never get it together.

Teacher: Well, it may be relevant, but it's not what I need!

Staff Developer: Some teachers seem to give lip service to just about anything; but you never see it working in their classrooms.

Teacher: I've really learned some things I can use with kids. When's the next session? I want to come back and . . .

The research described herein was conducted under contract with the National Institute of Education. The opinions expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the National Institute of Education, and no endorsement by the National Institute of Education should be inferred.

Staff Developer: I've just completed the most fantastic in-service session. The teachers were all enthusiastically involved and can't wait to apply their ideas . . . I wonder what made the session so successful?

The swirl of pros and cons, complaints and praise, moans and musings, will make any listener's head spin. The greatest common denominator seems to be, however, that trainees and trainers alike are awash in a sea of complexities. Even success often appears to result more from a benevolent confluence than from guiding concepts.

Although some guiding concepts do exist, others that could be of real assistance to staff developers in designing and delivering relevant activities need to be developed. Staff developers must be able to meet the individual needs of teachers who face a wide variety of issues and problems. Diagnosing teacher needs and providing relevant staff-development activities is a major goal of the research on the change process that is being conducted at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas at Austin. Change aspects are constantly confronted with the technical problems of innovation adoption and the needs of individuals involved in the process. Although staff-development activities may not be targeted toward the adoption of a particular innovation,[1] both staff developers and change agents face the problem of matching interventions with client needs.

This article will describe an aspect of this research that promises to ease the problems of diagnosing group and individual needs during the adoption process. The conceptual structure we will be dealing with is called the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), and we will examine one of its primary dimensions: the "concerns" expressed by individuals as they engage in the innovation-adoption process. This model can be truly effective in the planning and delivery of staff-development activities.

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT INNOVATION ADOPTION

The development of CBAM was based on extensive experience with educational innovation in school and college settings. The following assumptions were derived from that experience, and they establish the model's perspective on innovation adoption:

1. In educational institutions change is a *process*, not an event. Too often policymakers, administrators, and even teachers assume that change is the pivotal result of an administrative decision, legislative requirement, new curricular acquisition, or procedural revision. They casually assume that a teacher will put aside an old reading text and immediately apply an individualized program with great sophistication. Somehow the conviction lingers that with the opening of school under the new program the teachers will blend their talents into effective teams. As reflected in CBAM, the reality is that change takes time and is achieved only in stages.

2. The *individual* must be the primary target of interventions designed to facilitate change in the classroom. Other approaches to change (e.g., Organizational Development) view the composite institution as the primary unit of intervention, and place their emphasis upon improving communication and other organizational norms and behaviors. CBAM, however, emphasizes working with individual teachers and administrators in relation to their roles in the innovation process. CBAM rests on the conviction that institutions cannot change until the individuals within them change.

3. Change is a highly *personal* experience. Staff developers, administrators, and other change facilitators often attend closely to the trappings and technology of the innovation and ignore the perceptions and feelings of the people experiencing the change process. In CBAM, it is assumed not only that the change process has a personal dimension to it, but that the personal dimension is often of more critical importance to the success or failure of the change effort than is the technological dimension. Since change is brought about by individuals, their personal satisfactions, frustrations, concerns, motivations, and perceptions generally all play a part in determining the success or failure of a change initiative.

4. The change process is not an undifferentiated continuum. Individuals involved in change go through stages in their perceptions and feelings about the innovation, as well as in their skill and sophistication in using the innovation.

5. Staff development can best be facilitated for the individual by use of a *client-centered diagnostic/prescriptive model.* Too many in-service training activities address the needs of trainers rather than those of the trainees. To deliver relevant and supportive staff development, change facilitators need to diagnose the location of their clients in the change

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[1] Note that for the purposes of discussion in this chapter, the term *innovation* will be used to encompass both process (e.g., team teaching) and product (e.g., a new reading text) changes.

process and to direct their interventions toward resolution of those diagnosed needs.

6. The staff developers or other change facilitators need to work in an adaptive, yet systemic way. They need to stay in constant touch with the progress of individuals within the larger context of the total organization that is supporting the change. They must constantly be able to assess and reassess the state of the change process and be able to adapt interventions to the latest diagnostic information. At the same time the facilitator must be aware of the "ripple effect" that change may have on other parts of the system.

To accomplish all this, a conceptual model of the change process must provide practical reference points on a constantly changing array of events. The Stages of Concern about the Innovation dimension of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model is proposed as one framework that staff developers can use to aid in diagnosing, planning, delivering, and assessing the effects of staff-development activities.

STAGES OF CONCERN ABOUT THE INNOVATION

The Concerns-Based Adoption Model[2] provides a structure that takes into account each of the assumptions about the innovation-adoption process. Three aspects of change form the basic frame of reference of the model: the concern that users express about the innovation, how the innovation is actually used, and the ways in which the innovation can be adapted to the needs and styles of particular individuals. This article focuses primarily on the first—the concerns of individuals about the innovation.

The power of the concerns dimension lies in the assumption that the process of change is a personal experience for each individual involved in it. Everyone approaching a change, initially implementing an innovation, or developing skill in using an innovation will have certain perceptions, feelings, motivations, frustrations, and satisfactions about the innovation and the change process.

In CBAM, the concept of "concerns" has been developed to describe these perceptions, feelings, and motivations. Research studies have initially verified a set of stages that people appear to move through when they are involved in innovation implementation. These Stages of Concern about the Innovation provide a key diagnostic tool for determining the content and delivery of staff-development activities.

The concept of concerns was first described by Frances Fuller. In her research, Fuller[3] identified a set of concerns preservice teachers expressed as they moved through their teacher education program. These concerns changed from initial concerns *unrelated* to teaching (I'm concerned about getting a ticket to the rock concert next Saturday night), to concerns about *self* in relation to teaching (I wonder if I can do it), to *task* concerns about teaching (I'm having to work all night to prepare my lesson plans for tomorrow), to *impact* concerns (are the kids learning what they need?). All together, Fuller identified six different levels of concern that preservice teachers expressed at different points in their teaching training programs.

As the concept of teacher concerns was being disseminated, it became apparent that the concept had similar application to individual teachers and college professors involved in implementing various educational innovations. Seven Stages of Concern about the Innovation were identified (see figure 1). Apparently a person's stages of concern move through the progression from self, to task, to impact that Fuller had described.

CONCERNS SUPPORTED BY RESEARCH DATA

Subsequent research with the concept of Stages of Concern (SoC) has focused on the development of a reliable and valid measurement procedure for assessing user concerns[4] and on a series of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies that have initially verified the existence of such stages.[5]

The data gathered in these studies flesh out the concept of concerns as it appears in the real world. An individual does not have concerns on only one stage at a time. There is a concerns "profile," with some stages being relatively more intense and other stages having lower intensity. In general, it appears that during implementation of an innovation, stages 0, 1, and 2 concerns will initially be most intense. As implementation begins, stage 3, Management concerns, becomes more intense, with stages

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[2] G.E. Hall, R.C. Wallace, Jr., and W.A. Dossett, *A Developmental Conceptualization of the Adoption Process within Educational Institutions* (Austin, Tex.: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas, 1973).

[3] F.F. Fuller, "Concerns of Teachers: A Developmental Conceptualization," *American Educational Research Journal* 6, no. 2 (1969): 207-26.

[4] G.E. Hall, A.A. George, and W.L. Rutherford, *Measuring Stages of Concern about the Innovation: A Manual for Use of the SoC Questionnaire* (Austin, Tex.: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas, 1977).

[5] G.E. Hall and W.L. Rutherford, "Concerns of Teachers about Implementing Team Teaching," *Educational Leadership* 34, no. 3 (December 1976): 227-33.

FIGURE 1

STAGES OF CONCERN ABOUT THE INNOVATION*

6 ***REFOCUSING***: The focus is on exploration of more universal benefits from the innovation, including the possibility of major changes or replacement with a more powerful alternative. Individual has definite ideas about alternatives to the proposed or existing form of the innovation.

5 ***COLLABORATION***: The focus is on coordination and cooperation with others regarding use of the innovation.

4 ***CONSEQUENCE***: Attention focuses on impact of the innovation on student in his/her immediate sphere of influence. The focus is on relevance of the innovation for students, evaluation of student outcomes, including performance and competencies, and changes needed to increase student outcomes.

3 ***MANAGEMENT***: Attention is focused on the processes and tasks of using the innovation and the best use of information and resources. Issues related to efficiency, organizing, managing, scheduling, and time demands are utmost.

2 ***PERSONAL***: Individual is uncertain about the demands of the innovation, his/her inadequacy to meet those demands, and his/her role with the innovation. This includes analysis of his/her role in relation to the reward structure of the organization, decision making, and consideration of potential conflicts with existing structures or personal commitment. Financial or status implications of the program for self and colleagues may also be reflected.

1 ***INFORMATIONAL***: A general awareness of the innovation and interest in learning more detail about it is indicated. The person seems to be unworried about himself/herself in relation to the innovation. She/he is interested in substantive aspects of the innovation in a selfless manner such as general characteristics, effects, and requirements for use.

0 ***AWARENESS***: Little concern about or involvement with the innovation is indicated.

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*Original concept from G.E. Hall, R.C. Wallace, Jr., & W.A. Dossett, *A Developmental Conceptualization of the Adoption Process within Educational Institutions* (Austin, Tex.: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas, 1973).

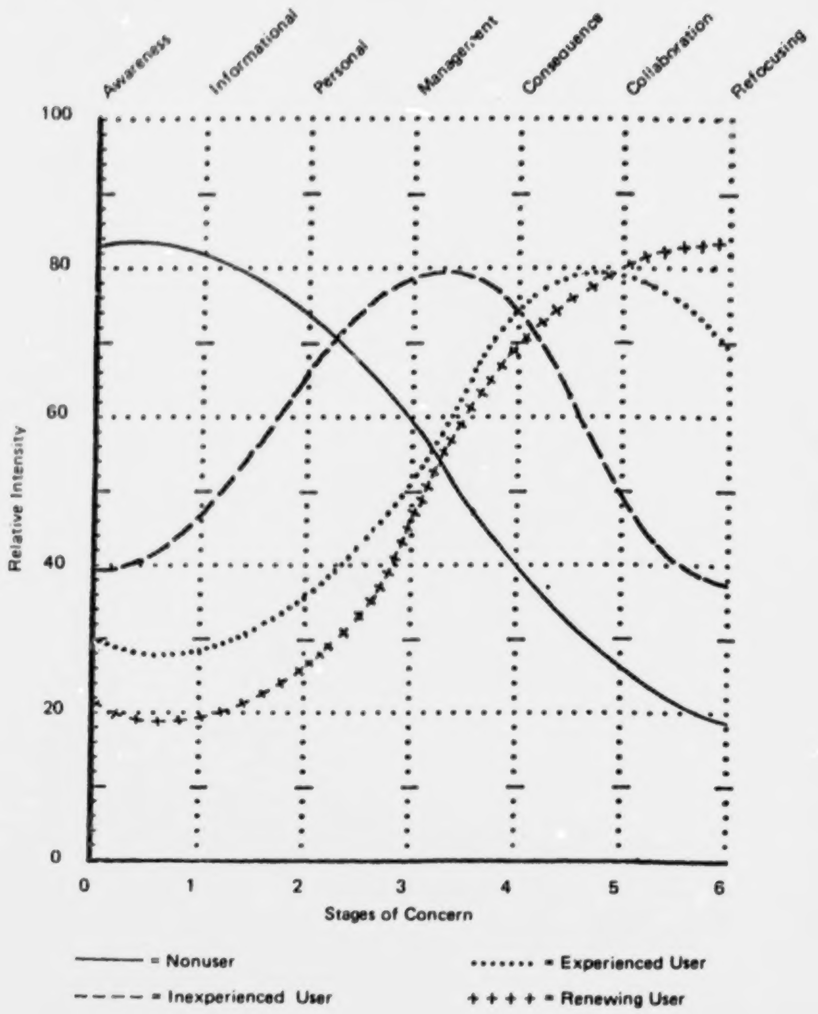
0, 1, and 2 concerns decreasing in intensity. In time, the Impact concerns of stages 4, 5, and 6 become the most intense. As an implementation effort evolves, SoC profiles can be seen to change in a wave pattern (see figure 2).

ASSESSING STAGES OF CONCERN

The data for the research studies described above were collected using assessment instruments that had demonstrated a high degree of scientific validity, particularly the SoC Questionnaire form. While this instrument is extremely useful in practical applications, there are several alternative ways in which the staff developer can collect concerns data from the individuals involved in an ongoing innovation-adoption process.

FIGURE 2

Hypothesized Development of Stages of Concern



Conversational Assessment The simplest is informal conversational assessment—in other words, talk about it. Ask leading questions, listen for clues in informal discussions, evaluate requests for input and support made by the innovation adopter. Experience has shown it is best not to ask directly what concerns the user or nonuser has, but to ask individuals to talk about what they are doing with the innovation *and* how they are using it. Also, questions about their perception of the innovation's strengths and weaknesses and what problems they are having typically elicit information about concerns. What conversational assessment lacks in scientific rigor, it makes up in ease of use and cost effectiveness. The method is also unobtrusive and does not readily solicit misleading information. This seat-of-the-pants assessment can be used to confirm or update more formal data and is most valuable to the experienced facilitator who wants to keep in "real-time" contact with the progress of an adoption process.

Open-ended Statement More formally, an open-ended statement of concerns can be solicited by asking for a written response to the question: "When you think of [the innovation], what are you concerned about?" A manual[6] is available that gives instructions for administering and scoring this simple assessment device. Figure 3 provides an example of an open-ended statement and its scoring.

FIGURE 3

OPEN-ENDED STATEMENT OF CONCERNS (Sample)

WHEN YOU THINK ABOUT [*THE INNOVATION*], WHAT ARE YOU CONCERNED ABOUT? (Do not say what you think others are concerned about, but only what concerns you *now*.) Please write in complete sentences, and please be frank.

[Almost every night I wonder if I'll be able to locate and organize the material I will be using 3
the next day.] [I worry because I can't yet prevent surprises that cause a lot of wasted time.] 3
[I am not yet able to anticipate what things I will need to requisition for next week.] [Overall, 3
I'm concerned because I fell inefficient when I think about my use of the innovation.] 3 (2)

The open-ended response in figure 3 reflects statements made by an individual with Management (stage 3) concerns. This is reflected in complaints about time, efficiency, and planning. As are all open-ended responses, this paragraph is scored by considering each sentence, scoring it according to the definitions in figure 1, and then developing an overall picture of the paragraph. Care must be taken to consider the gestalt, the overall flavor of the responses (which often reflect more than one SoC) and not to focus purely on the numbers or arithmetical averages that result.

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[6] B.W. Newlove and G.E. Hall, "A Manual for Assessing Open-ended Statements of Concern about an Innovation" (Austin, Tex.: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas, 1976).

The open-ended statement can be solicited any time new activities are being planned in an innovation-adoption process and can be used as a quick reference point to check the relevance of the activity. The change facilitator can easily flip through a batch of responses to get a feeling of the total group and to spot problem areas.

Stages-of-Concern Questionnaire The most formal and precise measure of Stages of Concern is the SoC Questionnaire.[7] The questionnaire consists of thirty-five items, each of which has a Likert scale (not true of me now . . . very true of me now) on which respondents indicate their present degree of concern about the topic described in the item. There are five items for each of the seven Stages of Concern. A sample item representing stage 5, Collaboration, is: "I would like to coordinate my efforts with others to maximize the innovation's effects."

The questionnaire takes about fifteen minutes to administer and can be scored either by hand, using percentile tables, or by computer. The questionnaire is psychometrically rigorous and reliable enough to provide both meaningful research data and information for planning change strategies. It is more efficient than the open-ended statement with large numbers of people, and provides more precise information on the basis of a larger quantity of data. More time is needed to process and interpret the responses, however, and the procedure costs more than the less formal measures.

SoC Questionnaire data can be interpreted in two ways. The first and simplest is by noting the stage that received the highest percentile score. This indicates the kinds of concerns that are most intense for the individual at that particular point in time. Assistance targeted at that particular concern may be warranted. A more complex interpretation of SoCQ data is possible by examining the "profile" of scores, that is, the percentile score for every stage for a respondent. The scores must be viewed as relative, with the highest and second-highest scores indicating areas of greatest concern and the lower scores as areas of least concern. Analysis of a concerns profile allows the staff developer to assess the relative value of alternative activities to the individual.

IMPLICATIONS OF CONCERNS FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The data collected to date in research studies reveal a variety of implications that the concerns dimension can hold for the staff developer. First, it is clear from several samples with many innovations that nonusers of an innovation have their most intense concerns on stages 0, 1, and

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[7] Hall, George, and Rutherford, *Measuring Stages of Concern about the Innovation.*

2. They are most concerned about having general descriptive information about the innovation (stage 1) and the personal implications of the innovation (stage 2). Further, they are not as concerned, relatively speaking, about the impact of the innovation upon students (low intensity in stages 4, 5, and 6).

Analysis of SoC profiles suggests that staff-development activities for nonusers should address those initial informational needs and personal concerns, perhaps by representing general descriptive information about the innovation and by describing how the innovation will affect them personally. For instance, potential users should be told the time it will take and what they will have to give up if they are going to use the innovation. Additionally, their supervisor should show that it is important to him or her that the innovation be used. In dealing with nonusers, the staff developers might be well advised to downplay the consequences of the innovation for students. Nonusers are naturally somewhat concerned about the implications of an educational innovation for students but are *more* concerned about what the innovation means to them. Hence, the often-heard administrator's statement "You should do this because it's good for kids" does not address the concerns of the typical nonuser. Indeed, such admonitions may arouse Personal and Informational concerns in the nonuser instead of facilitating a positive resolution.

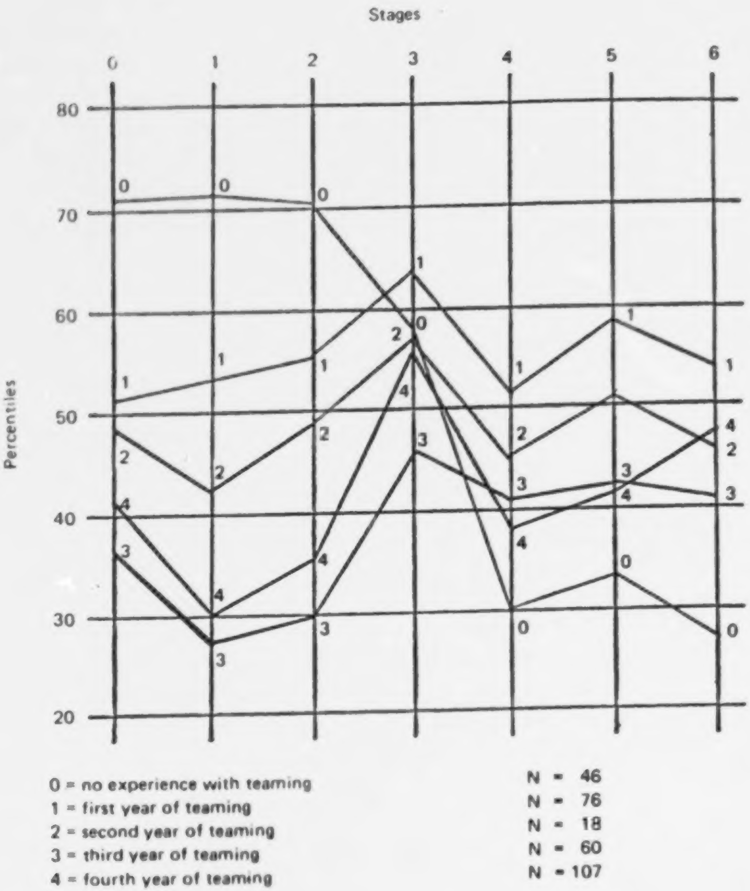
One sample of research findings is presented in figure 4. Figure 4 summarizes a cross-sectional sampling of 307 elementary school teachers in regard to the innovation, team teaching.

In these data, the "concerns profile" made by connecting the "0" points is again typical of what is found for nonusers of an innovation. Their most intense concerns are at stages 0, 1, and 2, and their least intense concerns are at stages 4, 5, and 6. First- through tenth-year users of teaming have their most intense concerns at the Management level, stage 3. Second-year teamers also had their most intense concerns at the Management level, as did third and fourth through tenth-year users of teaming.

In the innovation of teaming, Management concerns are apparently not resolved quickly. Clearly, these individuals need staff-development activities to resolve Management concerns. In the field sites where these data were collected, very little or no in-service support had been provided to the teachers implementing teaming. Thus, teachers were left on their own to "discover" how to organize and operate their teams more efficiently. Since teaming is a process innovation, it does not have clearly defined products that can simply be plugged in. Rather, users of teaming need to develop process skills, both as individuals and as teams. To accomplish this through the discovery approach or through on-the-job training would surely require an extended period of time. Not surprisingly, a great deal of time can be lost through inefficiencies. Comments such as "We never seem to get even simple decisions made" and "I have to do all my planning at night because our team planning time is consumed in administrative tasks" were frequently heard in the research sample cited above.

FIGURE 4

Distribution of Teachers' Concerns about Teaming according to Years of Experience with Teaming



It may be that users of teaming with high Mangement concerns would benefit from an Organizational Development (OD) workshop on agenda setting, decision making, and other basic teaming or group-skills training.

Interestingly, such a workshop would likely provide too much detail for the nonuser, who wants general descriptive information and information about potential personal implications, not all the nitty-gritty detail that the Management-concerned user wants. In a concerns-based implementation, the OD workshop on agenda setting would not be provided to team teachers until their Management concerns were more intense than their Self concerns.

In looking at the sample data on team teaching, the diagnostic and prescriptive powers of the concerns concept become apparent. The staff developer who assesses individual concerns data relative to an innovation in the adoption pipeline possesses valuable information with which to plan relevant and effective staff-develoment activities. Guesswork is thus removed from the planning process. "Gut feelings" about training needs are replaced by a reliable yardstick of concerns. The SoC profiles provide both individual and group data that can be used in various ways: to plan interventions, to evaluate progress, and to spot individual problems. In the next section, an example of using a concerns-based implementation effort based on SoC data is presented.

AN EXAMPLE OF A CONCERNS-BASED IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

As an illustration of how the concept of Stages of Concern can be employed in a concerns-based staff-development program, we will discuss a concerns-based implementation study being conducted by the Texas R&D Center in a large suburban school district. The implementation study involves teachers in grades three through six of the approximately eighty elementary schools in the district. The innovation is a revision of the science curriculum. In the past, teachers have used the packaged science curricula that were nationally developed in the 1960s.

The revision of the science curricula has entailed development of a teacher's guide that incorporates specific activities from several of the packaged curricula (e.g., Elementary Science Study Units and Science Curriculum Improvement Study Units), as well as values clarification, outdoor education, environmental education, and health education. The materials have been combined into one large notebook referred to as the "teacher's guide." The teacher's guide was designed to address SoC 3 Management concern issues. The "how-to-do-its" of teaching are included,

with information on where to locate the materials and organisms, how to order films, and what back-up references the teachers can locate.

The curriculum materials and the teacher's guide were developed and field-tested within the school system. After the staff developers and the science consultants for the school system had completed field testing, and as they were designing plans for implementation of the science curriculum throughout the eighty elementary schools, the Texas R&D Center became involved.

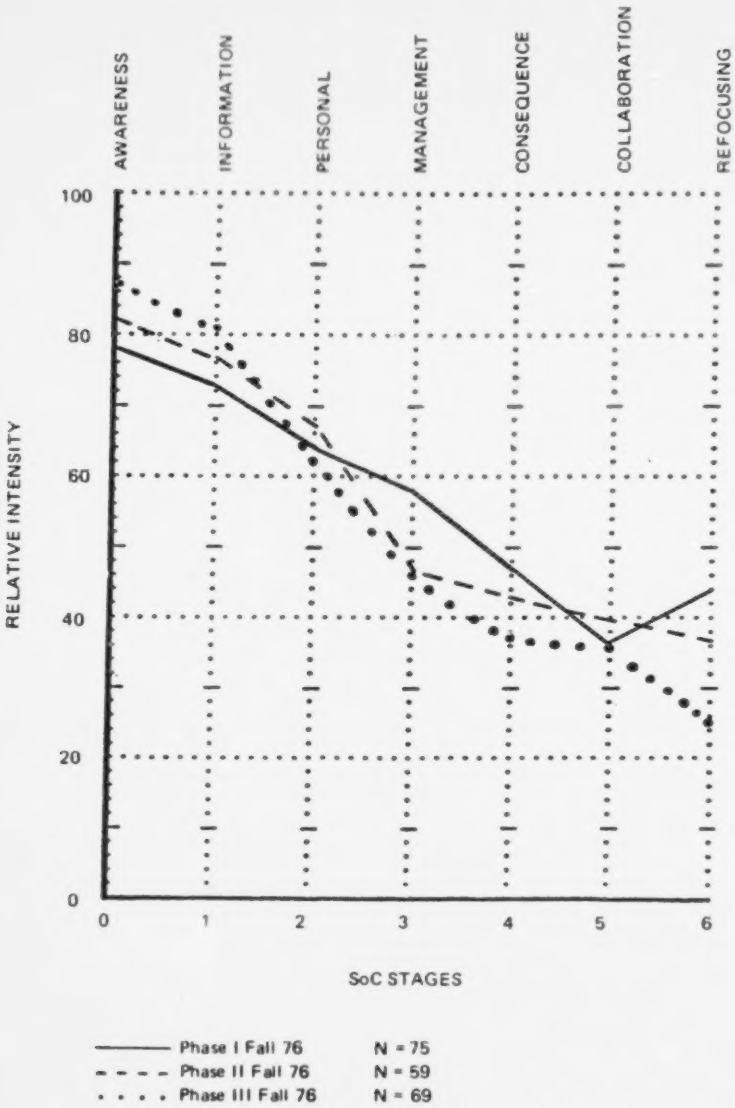
Initially, the plan was to use three released-time in-service days placed fairly close together early in the fall of the school year. The planned in-service activities were well designed and included the kinds of activities that science education has emphasized in the last ten years. The plans included having teachers participate in student activities, introducing them to the materials and the science content, and having them experience the science units. Model lessons and direct handling of materials as a part of the teacher in-service activities were planned; experienced teachers would be in-service leaders during the training period. In general, the plan was consistent with a concerns-based approach. However, as our collaborative effort developed, the school district's plan was adjusted with regard to Stages of Concern and other data collected within the school system.

Influenced by the idea of a concerns-based implementation, the first change in the plan was to extend the time between each of the released-time in-service days. In fact, rather than completing the in-service training before the school year started or within a six- to nine-week period, the in-service workshops were distributed over one and one-half school years. This was done because the teachers' concerns would not develop within six weeks from high Informational and Personal concerns to high-intensity Impact concerns. Rather, at least one or two cycles of use are required to resolve Management concerns and to move toward Impact concerns. By a broad distribution of the in-service training days, more concerns could be addressed.

A second decision, made early in the collaborative effort, was to clarify the goal of the implementation effort. The school system had a choice: to design interventions striving either for a portion of the teachers to teach science at a high level of quality (Impact concerns) or for all teachers simply to teach science using the new materials. It was not possible for both goals to be accomplished with the same staff-development plan, as the content of the staff development would be quite different for

FIGURE 5

Science Study SoC Profiles before In-Service



different objectives. The school system's decision was to have "all kids receiving science instruction."

Based on the initial assessment of Stages of Concern about the revised science curriculum (see figure 5), a decision was made to address the Informational (SoC 1) and Personal concerns (SoC 2) first. In addition, the data clearly indicated that Personal concerns were not particularly high, especially for nonusers. Thus, the emphasis was placed first on addressing Informational concerns. The training activity selected was a small group "pre-in-service" meeting (which lasted for one hour after school). At this meeting, scheduled the semester before actual in-service activities took place, the teachers from two schools met with one of the science consultants. They were introduced to the schedule and to the plans for the in-service days, and they received their teacher's guides. General questions were answered. The emphasis was placed on giving general descriptive information about the curriculum in anticipation of Personal and Management concerns.

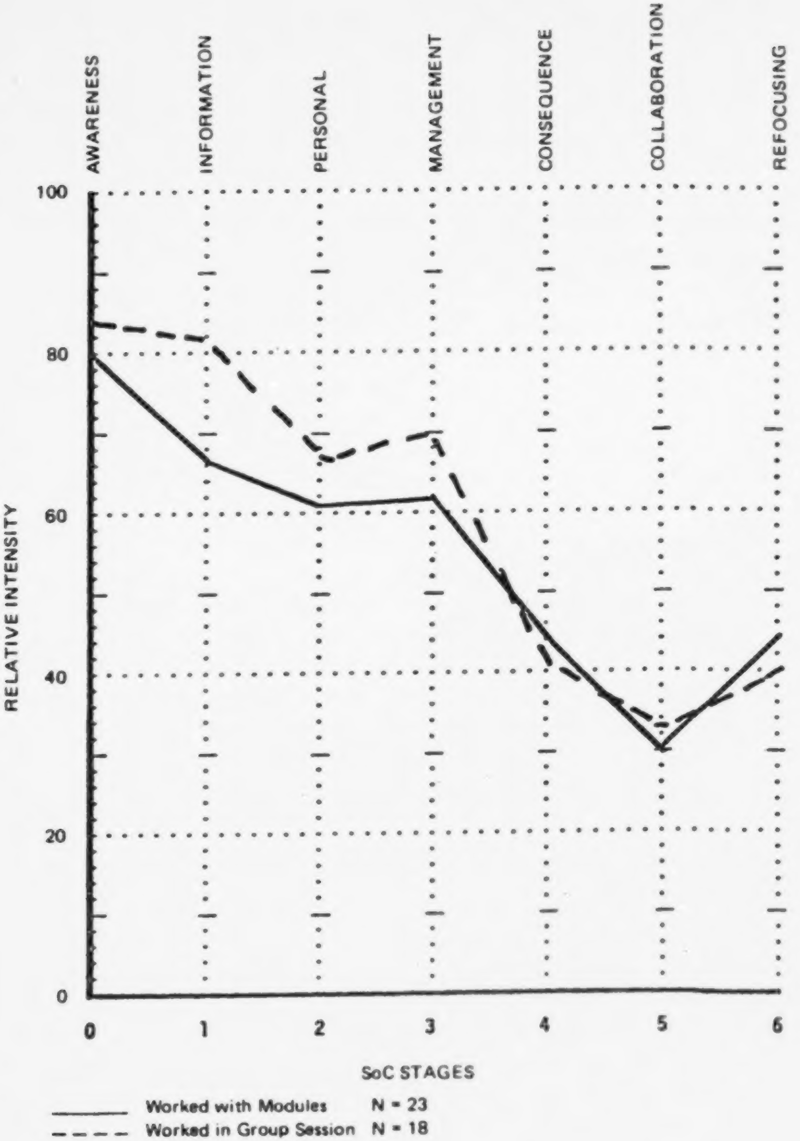
The released-time in-service days were structured to respond to "how-to-do-it" Management concerns. Teachers were to work directly with materials and discuss such topics as classroom management and material storage. However, there were teachers in the school system who had been involved in field testing the innovation in its draft form and others who were already highly proficient in the teaching of science. It was predicted that although most teachers attending the in-service days would have Management concerns, these others would have Impact concerns. Therefore, in-service days were designed with two tracks. One track was designed to address teachers with more intense Management concerns; the other for teachers who had more Intense Impact concerns.

The route designed for teachers with intense Management concerns entailed continuing involvement with science department staff and the in-service teacher leaders. The content of these sessions placed a great deal of emphasis on the nitty-gritty and "how-to-do-its" of teaching the science units. [illegible] alternate route intended for Impact-concerned teachers entailed self-paced modules dealing with such content areas as "wait time" in teaching behavior, Piaget, learning theory, and conducting outdoor education. These modules were designed to allow teachers to work individually and in small groups without constant supervision.

The concerns profiles for one of the workshops is presented in figure 6. As predicted, those teachers with higher Personal and Management concerns (SoC 2 and 3) stayed in the large group with the face-to-face

FIGURE 6

Phase I Grade 3



contact and the how-to-do-it content. Those teachers who had lower Personal and Management concerns chose instead to move with the more independent, Impact-content, modular route.

The initial implementation of the concerns concept provided staff developers with an overall schema and with diagnostic data for planning further staff-development activities. The teacher's guide was sound and the training activities (which were planned initially) were worthwhile. The trick was to get these elements together with the teachers at the right time. The key to the timing was an assessment of the state of the change process using the SoC Questionnaire.

SUMMARY

The Concerns-Based Adoption Model remains the subject of a great deal of research and refinement. Manuals exist for use of instruments that measure its important dimensions, such as the SoC Questionnaire. Other materials are under development that will define more precise uses of the model for diagnosis and prescription in the process of innovation adoption. In the meantime, however, the base concept of concerns is a valuable tool available to anyone who wants to critically examine a particular staff-development situation and plan concerns-based staff-development activities. Much can be done with the Stages of Concern data and a little common sense.

In conclusion, we will summarize a few key principles that have been suggested by research with the Concerns-Based Adoption Model. These are, in many ways, brief summaries of what has been discussed above, but they will add further perspective on concerns-based staff development.

1. *Be sure to attend to the teachers' concerns as well as to the innovation's technology.*

There is an affective, or personal, side to change. Too often change facilitators and teacher educators become all-involved in the technology of the innovation and neglect to attend to the persons that are involved.

2. *It is all right to have personal concerns.*

Personal concerns are a very real part of the change process and they need to be acknowledged and recognized as legitimate. It is the responsibility of the change facilitators to attend to these early concerns, or the individual is not apt to be able to resolve these and move on to Impact concerns.

3. *Do not expect change to be accomplished overnight.*

Because change is a process, entailing developmental growth and learning, it will take time. Managers of the change process and other designers of staff-development activities need to acknowledge and anticipate that change is a process and, in response, they need to adjust their training activities accordingly. One-shot workshops will not implement a program; long-term follow-up is necessary. Policy and decision makers must also become aware of this fact, and, in response, stop assuming that their decrees and mandates will result in instantaneous cures out in the field.

4. *Teachers' concerns may not be the same as those of the staff developers.*

Staff developers probably hold their positions because they have Impact concerns. However, it does not necessarily follow that their clients (teachers) will have Impact concerns about staff-development activities. This difference will certainly be evident at the beginning of a change effort. Staff developers need to design and deliver their activities so that the concerns of the teachers are addressed, not their own concerns. Resolution of early concerns will allow teachers to develop the Impact concerns that most interest staff developers.

5. *Within any group there is a variety of concerns.*

Once people buy into the idea of concerns, a new dilemma appears. As with any group, groups of teachers are never at the same place at the same time. Rather, individuals with different kinds of concerns will be present. Therefore, the traditional, cost-effective format of providing common staff-development activities for all teachers is no longer acceptable. The problem becomes: how to individualize and personalize staff development in such a way that each teacher's concerns are spoken to, while attending to the fact that staff-development budgets and staff time have definite limits. Using small homogeneous groups, designing options within a staff-development session, and providing school-based programs all have potential for solving this dilemma.

Clearly, there is a need for creative, unique approaches to concerns-based staff development. And, this need presents a challenge to all sensitive, responsive staff developers. Up-front cost may seem higher, but the promise of efficient planning and accurately presented activities will represent a significant savings in the end. Furthermore, the satisfaction of contributing significantly to the professional development of individual teachers, which will ultimately result in higher quality learning for children, is what all staff developers strive for. The concept of concerns is offered as one tool for use in achieving our common goal—effective education.

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THE DEVELOPER

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serving school district based staff developers

A Consumer's Guide to Selecting Staff Development Consultants

by Pat Roy

You've just been assigned the responsibility of designing a new inservice program. The expected outcomes are changes in attitudes, feelings, and behavior. What should you look for when hiring an outside consultant to help you in this task? This question will be answered by examining the characteristics of adult learners and by discussing the implications of these characteristics for planning staff developing activities. The article will conclude with a description of consultant competencies that flow from these characteristics of adult learners and their implications for planning.

Characteristics of Adult Learners

Teaching adults is different than teaching children! A significant difference between adults and younger learners is that the process of adult learning is viewed as *transformation,* not as formation (Brundage, 1980). Children are in the process of "becoming"; adults are changing from one form to another when they participate in learning activities.

The major outcome for adult education is a change in the pattern of meanings, values, behaviors, and attitudes (Boyd, 1980). Change involves awareness of the need for change, becoming aware of established patterns, learning and practicing new patterns, and integrating the changes back into the scheme of things (Brundage, 1980). Change is decidedly more complex and difficult for adults because it may mean first eliminating well established patterns before new patterns can replace them. Change also brings the risk of failure, a potent negative force in adult education.

The majority of teachers and administrators decide to become involved in inservice activities with one objective in mind — they want to learn something new. They are achievement oriented and they expect to be successful. Adults want to accomplish their goals, to "do the job right," but they are also fearful of suffering a blow to their self-esteem by being wrong or by failing (Burnham, 1982; Cross, 1981; Massey, 1980). Because of their need for success and goal accomplishment, adult learners demand task relevancy. They do not want to waste time on activities or content that do not have immediate and pragmatic application to their lives and problems (Brundage, 1980; Massey, 1980). Adult learners want the chance to transfer new learning back into their personal or professional lives.

Feiman (1980) reminds us that adult learning experiences should be "minds-on" as well as "hands-on." An important objective for adult learners is learning how to learn from their own experiences. Opportunities for reflective analysis helps adults identify new meanings and relationships and can bring learning to a level of conscious awareness. This reflection is also helpful during transitions between developmental stages. Applying new learnings to real-life situations and then reflecting back on those experiences should not be a by-product of adult education, but rather a planned and deliberate outcome (Long, 1983).

> **A significant difference between adults and younger learners is that the process of adult learning is viewed as *transformation,* not as formation. Children are in the process of "becoming"; adults are changing from one form to another when they participate in learning activities.**

Staff Development Implications

These characteristics of adult learners affect staff development programs in three ways: planning, classroom environment, and instructional strategies.

Planning

Long (1983) found that there is more satisfaction when learners have been involved in the planning process. Because adults have specific goals and objectives in mind when they become involved in training activities, it is desirable to involve them in determining program objectives and in selecting inservice activities that reflect their needs. Even though this involvement can be time-consuming in the beginning, it results in a more satisfying "match" between the inservice program and learner objectives (Verduin, 1977). Joint planning can occur in diagnosing participants'

cont. on page 8

INSIDE

- Call for Manuscripts
- NSDC Workshops
- Call for Presentations — Seattle Annual Conference
- Helping Teachers Become Effective Trainers

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A CONSUMER'S GUIDE cont. from page 1

needs, formulating objectives, organizing learning activities, designing application activities, providing practice of new skills, planning for feedback, and in assessing progress.

Classroom Environment

A positive, trusting, safe learning environment is mentioned repeatedly by adult education researchers and practitioners (Verduin, 1977; Arnold, 1980; Brundage, 1980; Boston, 1980; Boyd, 1980; Feiman, 1980; Major, 1980; Oja, 1980; Long, 1983). Why? Adult learning inevitably involves change, and change involves risk. That risk requires that training sessions have an atmosphere of trust and support, not only between the consultant and participants, but also among participants. The inservice session must become a safe place where new ideas can be learned and shared, where new behaviors can be practiced, and where feedback can be given without fear of ridicule (Boston, 1980). Adults learn best when they feel secure (Verduin, 1977).

The social environment of training programs should also support change by being threat-free, encouraging, and accepting. The most beneficial interactions for adults is cooperative, not competitive (Long, 1983; Johnson and Johnson, 1980). One way to ensure a cooperative atmosphere is the creation of peer support groups. Peer support groups are a safe place where new ideas and behaviors can be shared. Group techniques are preferred by most adults (Verduin, 1977) and contribute to enhanced motivation, a positive attitude toward learning, increased feelings of self-worth, and to increased independence from instructors (Long, 1983).

The physical environment of the room must also be considered. The arrangement of classroom furniture determines whether the session will be teacher-centered or student-centered. Rows and columns of desks indicate a teacher-centered environment; U-shaped arrangements, clusters of desks, and tables and chairs indicate student interaction (Long, 1983). Because a variety of interaction patterns is appropriate, moveable classroom furniture that can be rearranged quickly is preferred.

Instructional Strategies

Long (1983) points out that "there is no single technique or format best suited to meet the needs of all students" (p. 257). Consequently, the ability of a consultant to use many different styles and strategies is important. Program objectives should be the guide in determining the approach that will be used. Long (1983) reminds us that "the purpose of the educational activity should exercise some influence on the selection of the technique to be used" (p. 253). A formal lecture can be used if immediate recall of information is desired; if sustained learning and application are the goal, then participants active participation is necessary.

Arnold (1980) suggests that three different learning activities be used each hour, that activities employ more than one kind of sensory stimulation, and that visual aids be used. Learning techniques which can be used include small group discussion, demonstration by the trainer, paper and pencil tasks, experiential learning or stimulations, practice activities, journal writing, role-playing, nonverbal activities, lectures, and self-assessment instruments.

Active involvement has been cited by many researchers as a necessary component of effective adult learning programs (Verduin, 1977; Major, 1980; Oja, 1980; Wood, 1980; Wood, 1980). Active involvement promotes more effective learning and allows participants to apply new knowledge to their own unique settings. Merely acquiring knowledge will not meet the needs of adult learners; application, evaluation, and synthesis activities are necessary to help integrate new learning into adults' existing cognitive frameworks. Active participation facilitates this process.

Opportunities for rehearsal of new behaviors before trying them in the "real world" are essential. But practice is not enough. Reflection moves learning to a conscious level, and, according to Oja (1980), "regular, systematic reflection following an active experience serves to facilitate the cognitive restructuring process needed to integrate new learning with old patterns of thought" (p. 40). If new learning is not integrated into the existing cognitive structure, new information remains a set of random, meaningless ideas (Cross, 1981). The need for integration underscores the importance of collegial, supportive relationships in which participants can interact, experiment, support, and reflect in safety from ridicule or rejection. To sum up, variety and flexibility seem to be the best guides for choice of instructional strategies. Those strategies should be marked by active participation and reflective analysis and integration.

If new learning is not integrated into the existing cognitive structure, new information remains a set of random, meaningless ideas. The need for integrations underscores the importance of collegial, supportive relationships in which participants can interact, experiment, support, and reflect in safety from ridicule or rejection.

Consultant Competencies

Taking all the above into account, what competencies should a consultant have? Consultants should:

- Possess subject matter competence. Consultants should not only have knowledge and understanding of the content, but they should also be able to provide a content overview, objectives, additional resources, and be able to develop appropriate instructional materials. The consultant's own experiences with the topic should also be shared (Arnold, 1980; Brundage, 1980; Wood, 1980; Burnham, 1982).
- Do interactive planning. An effective educator of adults involves participants in planning program objectives and activities. The instructor acts as a peer and colleague as well as an expert. Treating learners with respect and deference is highly correlated to the achievement and satisfaction of adult learners (Long, 1983). Consultants should be enthusiastic and exhibit open, nondefensive, and caring behaviors. They should not consider themselves "finished learners" but rather be open to learning from their students (Brundage, 1980).
- Establish a cooperative context. The social atmosphere of the training session should be carefully structured and managed so that positive, supportive relationships can develop among participants. This atmosphere would include cooperative activities, the effective use of small group processes, and the creation of small support groups. The instructor should be able to model these behaviors as well as be able to teach positive interactive behaviors when necessary.
- Use sound instructional practices. Because of the variety of learning styles and cognitive strategies used by adults, the consultant should be well versed in many different types of

cont. on page 9

A CONSUMER'S GUIDE cont. from page 8

instructional strategies and techniques. Visual, auditory, and kinesthetic styles must be addressed and activities should be provided which allow for practice, integration, feedback, and reflection. Training activities should also include active involvement of participants.

Obviously, these competencies represent the ideal and would be difficult for any one person to possess. It is important to understand, however, that adult learners require more than a consultant who is merely content competent. High quality interpersonal skills and the ability to use appropriate instructional practices are equally important in effective staff development training programs. ■

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CONSULTANT CHECKLIST

1. **Subject Matter Competence**
   - Is the consultant well versed in the content?
   - Has the consultant applied the information to real-life situations?
   - Can the consultant adapt information to meet the unique needs/situations of the learners?
   - Does the consultant model the behaviors that he or she is teaching?

2. **Interactive Planning**
   - Can the consultant describe how participants will be involved in jointly planning objectives?
   - Can the consultant write a set of learner objectives for the training session?
   - Can the consultant describe how he or she adapts instructional activities to match learner needs?

3. **Cooperative Context**
   - Can the consultant describe the learning environment he or she creates? Is it cooperative?
   - Does the consultant use small groups? For what purpose: discussion, practice, feedback, support?
   - Does the consultant have references that describe him or her as positive, supportive, and respectful?

4. **Instructional Practices**
   - Will the consultant use a variety of instructional techniques?
   - What audio-visual aids will be used?
   - What kind of practice/application activities are planned?
   - How will feedback be provided from the consultant and from other participants on the practice of new skills?
   - What techniques are used to promote participants' reflective analysis?
   - How are participants to be actively involved in learning activities? How much time will be given to this involvement?
   - Will time be provided for participants to develop their own rationale for the use of a new behavior or skill?

— Pat Roy

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THE DEVELOPER

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APRIL 1987

serving school district based staff developers

The Changing Role of Staff Development Consultants in the Greece Central Schools

by Robert T. Fitzgibbon

In the past, we brought consultants into the Greece Central (NY) Schools for professional development days, workshops, and seminars. They brought with them all kinds of messages, ideas, and dreams — team teaching, flexible modular scheduling, humanistic education, time management, leadership skills, and ways to relieve teacher burn-out. They stayed for 1 day, one session, one program. Most of the time, there was no follow-through after they left. Because we had not identified a need, all we had to justify our choice of consultants was their great reputations. During these programs our teachers and administrators were either excited or bored. Some listened, a few slept, and others corrected papers or read. And most staff members wondered "why" or thought "so what."

Within the past few years we have learned a great deal about how consultants should be used. We now know that there is a logical and sequential process that one should follow when assessing needs and determining what type of consultant should be employed by the district. This article deals with the steps our school district has followed in hiring consultants to help us with our staff development needs.

The Selection Process

Step 1: Take time to define specifically what you really want to accomplish through staff development. For instance, in our school district it took us 1½ years to design a staff development plan to implement an extensive program for the Madeline Hunter process we call "Elements of Instruction." The goal we set for ourselves in 1985 was "that the techniques and concepts, as promoted through the 'Elements of Instruction' will be demonstrated correctly and consistently in the classrooms of Greece Central Schools." Our plan called for the achievement of this goal by the end of the 1987-88 school year.

Step 2: Spend a considerable amount of time attending awareness workshops. We visited districts that had experience with "Elements" programs. We read extensively, attended a number of state and national conferences, and considered what nearby colleges and universities could do for us.

Step 3: Develop a long-term plan including objectives, expected participant outcomes, timeline, and a budget. Ours was a 4-year plan.

Step 4: Assess district resources to decide what you can do to implement your plan within budget allocations. When we developed our original plan for "Elements," we identified a sequence of steps for implementation. Analysis of these steps revealed that we did not have sufficient staff resources within the district to do the job. Consequently, consultants were needed to help with:

1. Review of the overall district implementation plan.
2. Initial training of staff in "Elements of Instruction."
3. Selection of training teams and the training of staff who were chosen to be trainers.
4. Providing strategies for working with adults.
5. Assisting in developing school plans to follow-up the initial "Elements" training of administrators and teachers.

> **Within the past few years we have learned a great deal about how consultants should be used. We now know that there is a logical and sequential process that one should follow when assessing needs and determining what type of consultant should be employed by the district.**

(cont. on page 6)

INSIDE

- Board of Trustees to Meet
- Technical Assistance Task Force Prepares Recommendations
- Staff Development for Experienced Teachers

Robert T. Fitzgibbon is Assistant Superintendent-Instruction/Program & Staff Development, Greece Central School District, P.O. Box 300, N. Greece, NY 14515.

ESTABLISHING CAREER LADDERS IN TEACHING

A Guide for Policy Makers

Edited by

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To increase successful implementation of the career ladder program, leading authorities herein discuss background information, recommendations, and guiding principles for decision-making. The book is divided into three sections. Section I provides an overview of career ladders, considers the reasons behind career ladder proposals, and examines future directions. Six common components already in use—merit/incentive pay structure, performance evaluation, professional development, the relationship between K-12 and higher education, and governance are presented.

Section II addresses implementation issues and recommendations. Issues such as organizational change, resistance to change, group norms, market sensitivity, rewards, governance structure, screening processes, and the use of quotas are covered. Also receiving thorough review are the roles of teachers and administrators, the identification and evaluation of teachers, professional development, the work environment, costs/funding of a career ladder, and the support of the teacher association.

The last section summarizes ideas and presents recommendations including over 50 principles useful in guiding decision-makers through the actual implementation process.

Anyone involved in this decision-making process—personnel in state legislatures, state departments of education, school districts, teacher associations, school boards, and higher education professionals—will find this informative and comprehensive text to be extremely valuable in successful implementation.

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Greece Central Schools cont. from page 1

Since that time, four consultants have been working with us in these areas.

Step 5: Begin an extensive search for consultants to satisfy the needs you cannot accommodate within your district. We listened to colleagues, traveled extensively, and called school districts we couldn't visit. We continued to read from various journals to further help us narrow the list of possible consultants. We also attended conferences where topics matching our needs were being discussed.

Working With Consultants

Once we have identified the consultant we want, we have found that it is beneficial to make a 2-3 year commitment. Good consultants have to work within the constraints of their calendars and often require such an advanced commitment. This is of tremendous advantage to the district and to the consultant because it aids in planning and assures that consultants will have a better understanding of the Greece Central Schools. It also promotes an excellent working relationship.

Anyone who hires consultants soon realizes that their skills vary. Some work well in large groups, while others are much more effective in small groups. Still others work best with individuals. Some are best with program, others with process. We found that it was essential to identify not only what we wanted consultants to accomplish, but what *process* they would use to insure that our needs were met.

One technique that works well with our consultants, since cost is always of major importance, is to plan far enough ahead so that the consultant will have a rigorous schedule while in the district. It is not unreasonable, we believe, to have our consultants start at 7:30 a.m., spend time in a planning session over lunch with some of us, do more planning during dinner, and then to sometimes work in the evening. Time to plan for future visits is always built into the schedule.

Another technique which seems to serve our interests is to involve teachers and principals in determining how to make the best use of consultants' time while in their schools. We do restrict consultant use, however, to only those purposes which are congruent with the defined needs and objectives of the district plan.

Results

As I look back over the events that led to our improved understanding of how to use consultants, I believe that our time and effort have produced some important results.

- The reputations and the excellent professional ethics of our consultants make scheduling them an easy task when they are in the district. Further, because our consultants never visit the school district at the same time, staff are afforded the opportunity to focus specifically on the expertise of each consultant.

cont. on page 7

Greece Central Schools cont. from page 6

- By contracting with the same consultants on a long-term basis, a consistency of approach develops. This enables more staff members to work with each of them in a planned and continuous arrangement.

> **Good planning, the identification of specific needs, and searching out the best consultants available — these are the things that have made the difference in our staff development program and in our school district.**

- Consultants' monthly visits allow us to use the skills of the consultant for a variety of other purposes. For example, the consultant we hired to work with our staff on the topic of "adults working with adults" is also skilled in the areas of human development, stress, and the change process. After this consultant finished her work in individual schools, she conducted a five-part series on the topics mentioned above. The series is scheduled from 3:30 to 7:00 p.m., with supper included for everyone who volunteers to attend. Because the program is open to everyone, administrators, teachers, secretaries, teacher aides, and nurses attend. Thus, we take advantage of the consultant's time and expertise and simultaneously accommodate the common interests of a variety of staff members.
- With consistent use of consultants over time, we receive valuable feedback from them that identifies the growth patterns, problems, and strengths of our staff development efforts.
- The long-term use of consultants establishes a philosophical base which, in turn, supports what our staff development program has become. Once this philosophical base has been established, we can look for additional consultants who will maintain this direction.
- Consultants get to know many dimensions of the school district. When they work in other school districts, they speak positively of Greece Central. As a result, we have established valuable contacts that have given us encouragement and assisted us in our efforts.
- Consultants are an important part of our staff development cycle. They force us to grow by supplying new ideas. The consultants we work with are very knowledgeable about recent research. This healthy give and take enables us to demonstrate the maxim "staff development is a process, not an event."
- Consultants are excellent contacts with other consultants. They help us identify additional consultants whom we can use to meet other needs. Our experience is that the best consultants travel with the best.
- The use of a consultant in a school requires good planning at the building level. Teachers and administrators simply do not want to be embarrassed when a consultant works with them. They can't cancel a meeting when they know that the consultant is in the district for such a limited amount of time. Before long, staff appreciates the quality of the consultant, and this appreciation makes them work to impress him or her.

What sums it all up for us is something one of our elementary principals said recently: "Consultants make the program official. They not only represent the commitment of the school district but also represent an authority." A major reason we have come as far as we have in developing a good staff development program is the quality of consultants we have brought to Greece. Good planning, the identification of specific needs, and searching out the best consultants available — these are the things that have made the difference in our staff development program and in our school district. ■

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A Consultant's Perspective on Working with School Districts

by Judy-Arin Krupp

How can staff developers work with consultants to produce the best outcome for their districts? How can districts get the most for their money? This article, based on my experience as an independent consultant, will answer these questions for each stage of the consultant-district relationship: initial contact, planning, consulting, follow-up, and final contact.

Initial Contact

Initial contact with the consultant can lead to better understanding and more efficient planning if the staff developer can answer two questions:

- What specific needs should the consultant address?
- What assurance has the staff developer that the group members are ready for the consultant?

The staff developer who assesses need on an ongoing basis can offer the consultant current information. The more specific the information, the better the consultant can tailor the presentation to the group. Only hire consultants who express a willingness to modify their approach when appropriate. Similarly, do not expect a consultant to agree to work with the district if fuzzy objectives emerge from the initial discussion.

The person making contact with the consultant should indicate if he or she has the authority to make a decision about hiring. If the call serves the purpose of obtaining information to take back to a committee, say so.

> **Only hire consultants who express a willingness to modify their approach when appropriate. Similarly, do not expect a consultant to agree to work with the district if fuzzy objectives emerge from the initial discussion.**

Give the consultant an indication of when the committee will make a decision. Consultants can hold dates for only a limited amount of time. When the consultant agrees to hold a date, the staff developer takes responsibility to call or write in a timely fashion confirming or releasing the date.

If the contract depends on achieving a given number of registrants, tell the consultant at the outset. The consultant and staff developer need to agree on a date at which the staff developer and/or consultant will decide "go" or "no go."

At the time of initial contact get basic information from the consultant such as address, home and business phone numbers, and fees. After making a commitment to hire the consultant, communicate about the local airport, mode of preferred transportation to the workshop site, directions for driving (if necessary), who will get the airline tickets and hotel reservations, the need for a letter of confirmation or a contract, whether or not the consultant or district charges a penalty fee for cancellation, and any specific requirements stipulated by either the consultant or the staff developer. For example: Does the staff developer need a photograph, description of the presentation, an outline of content, or letters of recommendation? Does the consultant need materials photocopied, background information on participants, or descriptions of other related programs done during the year? Both parties need to make a list ahead of time to assure an efficient phone call. Try to avoid numerous calls because of oversights.

Readiness refers to participants' openness to learning and change. Do not waste staff development resources presenting something to those who don't want it. Spend time preparing the group by sharing articles on the topic, raising the group's consciousness about related issues, or sending someone to a national meeting to bring back insights about the new ideas. Only then consider hiring the consultant.

Planning

After the consultant has received a contract or a letter of confirmation and the staff developer has the initial

cont. on page 4

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INSIDE

- Member Input Sought Regarding Strategic Plan
- Educational Reseach: A Point of View
- Staff Development in the Journals

Consultant's Perspective cont. from page 1

information that he or she requires, the planning phase begins. Sometimes this process occurs concurrently with the initial contact. At this time staff developers and consultants make the "nitty gritty" decisions about schedules, content, method of delivery, handouts, time frames, participants, room arrangement, audiovisual needs, lunch, and snacks.

Consultants spend many nights in motels and eat many meals in restaurants. During their time on-site they appreciate getting their hygiene needs met. Some consultants want to eat salads while others prefer steak; some require a nonsmoking room; some want to stay close to the workshop site while others desire a specific type of hotel regardless of distance.

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The consultant has the responsibility to alert the staff developer to his or her personal and professional needs in writing, if possible. It makes it easier for the consultant if the staff developer lets the consultant know which requests the district can fulfill and which ones they cannot meet. Compromise and modifications on both parts lead to the best possible outcome.

At this point the consultant makes decisions about what to do and how to do it to match the needs and the constraints determined during the initial contact. The consultant may request more data; what seemed like sufficient information to the consultant at the initial contact may require greater elaboration during the planning phase. Staff developers know the district better then the consultant and have the expertise to clarify and elaborate on the district's needs. Consultants should welcome constructive criticism of their tentative plan.

> **At this point the consultant makes decisions about what to do and how to do it to match the needs and the constraints determined during the initial contact. The consultant may receive request more data; what seemed like sufficient information to the consultant at the initial contact may require greater elaboration during the planning phase.**

During the planning stage the staff developer and the consultant need to make arrangements for follow-up. In some instances follow-up requires the consultant to return to the district. In other situations the consultant can provide materials or make suggestions for methods to promote the use of what has been learned.

Some things for the staff developer to remember during the planning phase include:

- The consultant has done many similar presentations. The district hired the individual because of his or her expertise. Trust the person's knowledge and skill.
- Because of time spent on the road consultants have limited time in their offices. They need as much information as possible well in advance about schedules and requirements.
- Consultants request things they feel will increase their effectiveness on the job. Honor these requests whenever possible.
- If the consultant flies through two or more time zones, jet lag should be considered when establishing the time for consulting.

cont. on page 5

Consultant's Perspective cont. from page 4

- Small things can sometimes become major concerns, somewhat like the grain of sand in one's shoe creating a blister. For example, standing all day on a hard floor rather than a carpet can lead to consultant fatigue; not having a glass of water may lead to a voice problem; holding a microphone may make it difficult to use transparencies; having the group seated in the back of a large auditorium makes it difficult to develop a sense of cohesiveness; and, while sugary snacks initially result in high energy, they are followed by a low.
- Many adults learn best in the morning. After 4 or 5 hours of learning their ability to learn markedly wanes. Workshops that run for more than 5 hours often become counterproductive.
- Consultants with more than one presentation in a day appreciate schedules that allow them to remain in the same location.
- When in doubt call or write the consultant to clarify their needs or desires or to express a concern.
- Do not schedule an evening social event that includes the consultant without first checking. Time to think, work on a project, or just read may be needed to prepare the consultant for the next day. Constant socializing can result in exhaustion.

Consulting

During the actual time when the consultant meets with district personnel it helps if:

1. The staff developer or a secretary has arranged to meet the consultant's needs as described in the letter sent during the planning phase. Last minute furniture moving and collation of handouts, scurrying to find the appropriate microphone, or discovering the screen size does not match group size creates unnecessary hassels for both the presenter and the staff developer.
2. The consultant gets to the presentation site early enough to set up materials and still have time to meet and greet attendees.
3. Someone remains available throughout the day to alter the room temperature, replenish the coffee, and let participants know breaks have ended.
4. The workshop setting provides for creature comforts such as munchies, close proximity to bathrooms, good lighting and availability of comfortable, adult-size chairs.
5. The staff developer helps the consultant gain some alone time during the day. A few minutes of solitude can act as a battery charger.
6. The consultant is allowed to alter the presentation as participants' needs demand. Adult learners appreciate

cont. on page 6

Consultant's Perspective cont. from page 5

flexibility within clearly defined expectations for learning.

7. Those responsible for the consultant's day have a copy of his or her schedule and understand their responsibilities for picking up the consultant, providing transportation to lunch, etc.

> **Participants fill out an evaluation form that asks for specific feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of the consultant's work, information about follow-up needs, and a commitment from the participant to make at least one change related to the topic.**

8. Participants fill out an evaluation form that asks for specific feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of the consultant's work, information about follow-up needs, and a commitment from the participant to make at least one change related to the topic. The instrument produces more useful data if the participants have read it before the presentation and have an unhurried block of time at the conclusion of the day to complete it. A plea by the staff developer, and echoed by the consultant, for concrete and detailed feedback also brings more useful information.

Follow-up

The follow-up phase requires that the consultant submit an invoice with appropriately documented expenses. Most consultants will also send a letter of appreciation to the staff developer.

Consultants appreciate receiving both a summation of the evaluations and a letter with specific feedback about the strengths and weaknesses of the presentation. Such feedback permits consultants to modify their approach so they will be more effective in the future.

Consultants can modify their work even further if staff developers will send a letter several weeks later describing what changes the participants initiated and the results of those experiments. Some districts even send a letter from each participant describing what did and did not work.

Clarify whether or not the district wants to continue to use the consultant. If not, then the relationship enters the final stage. If so, then establish a mutually convenient time to start again at the initial contact stage with a reassessment of need and readiness.

cont. on page 7

Consultant's Perspective cont. from page 6

Final Contact

Final contact occurs when the consultant or district representative decide the relationship has ended. This may happen because the staff developer feels the consultant has effectively done the job and the district no longer needs the individual's expertise, when the consultant feels he or she has nothing more to give, or when the consultant has proved his or her inability to adequately do the job.

Consultants can modify their work even further if staff developers will send a letter several weeks later describing what changes the participants initiated and the results of those experiments. Some districts even send a letter from each participant describing what did and did not work.

Final contact also comes for the consultant when he or she receives payment and a letter indicating that the relationship has ended. Staff developers should check with the payroll department 6 weeks after a consultant has worked in the district to assure action on the consultant's invoice.

Conclusion

Consultants can be costly to school districts both in terms of fees paid and staff time. To ensure the best possible result from that investment, the needs of the district and the consultant must blend. Collaboration and respect on both parts makes for a successful relationship. ■

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national
staff development council

From

Qualitative Evaluation Methods

by

Michael Quinn Patton

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CHAPTER

7

QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWING

After much study of the evaluation masters three youths came before Halcolm to ask how they might further increase their knowledge and wisdom. Halcolm sensed that they lacked experience in the real world, but he wanted to have them make the transition from the seclusion of their studies to the outside world in stages. During the first stage he sent them forth under a six-month vow of silence. During those six months they wore the identifying garments of the muted truth-seekers so that people would know that they were forbidden to speak. Each day, according to their instructions, they sat at the market in whatever village they entered, watching but never speaking. After six months in this fashion they returned to Halcolm.

"So," Halcolm began, "you have returned to us from your journey. Your period of silence is over. Your transition to the world beyond our walls of study has begun. What have you learned on this your first journey?"

The first youth answered, "In every village the patterns are the same. People come to the market. They buy the goods they need, talk with friends, and leave. I have learned that all markets are alike and the people in markets always the same. I have learned that all things are ultimately the same from place to place."

Then the second youth reported, "I too watched the people come and go in the markets. I have learned that all life is coming and going, people forever moving to and fro in search of food and basic material things. I understand now the simplicity of human life."

Halcolm looked at the third youth: "And what do you have to tell us?"

"I saw the same markets and the same people as my fellow-travelers, yet I know not what they know. My mind is filled with questions. I kept wondering where the people came from and where they went. I pondered what they might be thinking and feeling as they came and went. I reflected on how they happened to be at this market on this day, who they left behind, and who came with them. I wondered how today was the same or different for them. I have failed, Master, for I am filled with questions rather than answers, questions for the people I saw. I do not know what I have learned."

Halcolm smiled. "You have learned most of all. You have learned the value of being able to ask questions. You have learned the importance of finding out what people have to say. You are ready now to return to the world, this time without the vow of silence."

> "Go forth now. Go forth and question. Ask and listen. The world is just beginning to open up to you. Each person you question can take you into a new part of the world. For the person who is willing to ask and listen the world will always be new. The skilled questioner and attentive listener knows how to enter into another's experience."
>
> From: *Halcolm: Biography of a Master Evaluator*

INNER PERSPECTIVES

The purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in and on someone else's mind. The purpose of open-ended interviewing is *not* to put things in someone's mind (for example, the interviewer's preconceived categories for organizing the world) but rather to access the perspective of the person being interviewed. We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe. The issue is not whether observational data is more desirable, valid, or meaningful than self-report data. The fact of the matter is that we cannot observe everything. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions. We cannot observe behaviors that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world—we have to ask people questions about those things. The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective. The assumption is that that perspective is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit.

Interview data for program evaluation purposes allow the evaluator to capture the perspectives of program participants, staff, and others associated with the program. What does the program look like and feel like to the people involved? What are the experiences of program participants? What thoughts do people knowledgeable about the program have concerning program operations, processes, and outcomes? What do people know about the program? What are their expectations? What features of the program are most salient to the people involved? What changes do participants perceive in themselves as a result of their involvement in the program? It is the responsibility of the evaluator to provide a framework within which people can respond comfortably, accurately, and honestly to these kinds of questions. The task undertaken by the interviewer is to make it possible for the person being interviewed to bring the interviewer into his or her world. The quality of the information obtained during an interview is largely dependent on the interviewer. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss ways of obtaining high quality evaluative information by talking with people who have that information.

Evaluators can enhance the utilization potential of the information they collect by making sure they take the necessary steps to increase the quality of their findings. As Hermann Sudermann said in *Es Lebe das Leben I*, "I know how to listen when clever men are talking. That is the secret of what you call my influence." Evaluators must learn how to listen when knowledgeable people are talking. That may be the secret of their influence.

This chapter begins by discussing three different types of interviews, three basic approaches to qualitative interviewing. Later sections consider the content of interviews: what to ask questions about and ways of phrasing interview questions. The chapter ends with a discussion of how to record the responses obtained during interviews.

VARIATIONS IN QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWING

There are three basic approaches to collecting qualitative data through open-ended interviews. The three approaches involve different types of preparation, conceptualization, and instrumentation. Each approach has strengths and weaknesses, and each serves a somewhat different purpose. The three choices are:

(1) the informal conversational interview;
(2) the general interview guide approach; and
(3) the standardized open-ended interview.

The differences among these three approaches to the design of the interview is the extent to which interview questions are determined and standardized *before* the interview occurs. The *informal conversational interview* relies entirely on the spontaneous generation of questions in the natural flow of an interaction, typically an interview that occurs as part of ongoing participant observation fieldwork. During an informal conversational interview, the persons being talked with may not even realize they are being interviewed.

The *general interview guide approach* involves outlining a set of issues that are to be explored with each respondent before interviewing begins. The issues in the outline need not be taken in any particular order and the actual wording of questions to elicit responses about those issues is not determined in advance. The interview guide simply serves as a basic checklist during the interview to make sure that all relevant topics are covered. The interview guide presumes that there is common information that should be obtained from each person interviewed, but no set of standardized questions are written in advance. The interviewer is thus required to adapt both the wording and sequence of questions to specific respondents in the context of the actual interview.

The *standardized open-ended interview* consists of a set of questions carefully worded and arranged with the intention of taking each respondent through the same sequence and asking each respondent the same questions with essentially the same words. Flexibility in probing is more or less limited, depending on the nature of the interview and the skills of interviewers. The standardized open-ended interview is used when it is important to minimize variation in the questions posed to interviewees. This reduces the possibility of bias that comes from having different interviews for different people, including the problem of obtaining more comprehensive data from certain persons while getting less systematic information from others. A standardized open-ended interview may be particularly appropriate when a large number of people are to conduct interviews on the same topic and the evaluator wishes to reduce the variation in responses due to the fact that, left to themselves, different interviewers will ask questions on a single topic in different ways. By controlling and standardizing the open-ended interview the evaluator obtains data that are systematic and thorough for each respondent but that reduce flexibility and spontaneity.

THE INFORMAL CONVERSATIONAL INTERVIEW

The informal conversational interview is the phenomenological approach to interviewing. A phenomenological approach is used when the researcher has no presuppositions about what of importance may be learned by talking to people in the program. The phenomenological interviewer wants to maintain maximum flexibility to be able to pursue information in whatever direction appears to be appropriate, depending on the information that emerges from observing a particular setting or from talking to one or more individuals in that setting. Most of the questions will flow from the immediate context. Thus, the conversational interview is a major tool used in combination with participant observation to permit the evaluator who is participating in some programmatic activity to understand other participants' reactions to what is happening. No predetermined set of questions is possible under such circumstances, because the evaluator does not know beforehand what is going to happen and what it will be important to ask questions about.

The data gathered from informal conversational interviews will be different for each person interviewed. In many cases, the same person may be interviewed on a number of different occasions using an informal, conversational approach. The phenomenological approach is particularly useful where the evaluator can stay in the situation for some period of time, so that he or she is not dependent on a single interview to collect information about the program. Interview questions will change over time, and each interview builds upon the other, expanding information that was picked up previously, moving in new directions and seeking elucidations and elaborations from various participants in their own terms. The phenomenological interviewer must "go with the flow." Depending on how the interviewer's or evaluator's role has been defined, the people being interviewed may not know during any particular informal conversation that the purpose of the conversation is the collection of data. This means that in many cases phenomenological interviewers do not take notes during the interview; rather, they write down what they learned after they have left the interview/observation situation. In other cases, it can be both appropriate and comfortable to take notes or even use a tape recorder.

The strength of the phenomenological approach to interviewing is that it allows the interviewer/evaluator to be highly responsive to individual differences and situational changes. Questions can be individualized to establish in-depth communication with the person being interviewed and to make use of the immediate surroundings and situation to increase the concreteness and immediacy of the interview questions and responses. The informal, conversational interview is a mainstay of participant observation. It is particularly useful when the interviewer/evaluator is able to explore a field setting or program over a fairly long period of time so that a comprehensive data base is accumulated through in-depth interviewing (by which later interviews build on information obtained in earlier interviews), thus establishing a holistic picture of program change and development.

The weakness of the informal conversational interview is that it requires a greater amount of time to collect systematic information because it may take several conversations with different people before a similar set of questions has been posed to each participant in the program. The informal conversational interview is also more open to interviewer effects in that it depends on the conversational skills of the interviewer/evaluator to a greater extent than do more formal, standardized formats. The phenomenological interviewer must be able to interact easily with people in a variety of settings, generate rapid insights, formulate questions quickly and smoothly, and guard against asking questions that impose interpretations on the situation by the structure of the questions. Data obtained from informal conversational interviews are also difficult to pull together and analyze. Because different questions will generate different responses, the phenomenologist has to spend a great deal of time sifting through responses to find patterns that have emerged at different points in different interviews with different people. By contrast, interviews that are more systematized and standardized facilitate analysis but provide less flexibility in terms of being able to be responsive to individual and situational differences.

THE INTERVIEW GUIDE

An interview guide is a list of questions or issues that are to be explored in the course of an interview. An interview guide is prepared in order to make sure that basically the same information is obtained from a number of people by covering the same material. The interview guide provides topics or subject areas within which the interviewer is free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject. Thus, the interviewer remains free to build a conversation within a particular subject area, to word questions spontaneously, and to establish a conversational style—but with the focus on a particular subject that has been predetermined.

The advantage of an interview guide is that it makes sure that the interviewer/evaluator has carefully decided how best to use the limited time available in an interview situation. The interview guide helps make interviewing across a number of different people more

systematic and comprehensive by delimiting the issues to be discussed in the interview. The interview guide approach is especially useful in conducting group interviews: A guide keeps the interaction focused, but allows individual perspectives and experiences to emerge. Interview guides can be developed in more or less detail, depending on the extent to which the researcher is able to specify important issues in advance and the extent to which it is felt that a particular sequence of questions is important to ask in the same way or the same order to all respondents. Lofland (1971), in his book, *Analyzing Social Settings,* provides a number of examples of interview guides that have been used in the conduct of sociological research. What follows is an example of an interview guide used with participants in a manpower training program.

Interview Guideline For
Manpower Program Evaluation

What has the trainee done in the program: activities? interactions? products? work performed?

What are the trainee's current work skills? What things can the trainee do that are marketable?

How has the trainee been affected by the program in areas other than job skills—feelings about self? attitudes toward work? aspirations? interpersonal skills? spinoffs?

What are the trainee's plans for the future—work plans? income expectations? lifestyle expectations/plans?

What does the trainee think of the program—strengths? weaknesses? things liked? things disliked? best components? poor components? things that should be changed?

This interview guideline provides a framework within which the interviewer would develop questions, sequence those questions, and make decisions about which information to pursue in greater depth. The interviewer normally would not be expected, however, to go into totally new subjects that are not covered within the framework of the interview guide. The interviewer does not ask questions, for example, about previous employment or education, how the person got into the program, how this program compares with other programs the trainee has experienced, and the trainee's health. Other topics might still emerge during the interview, topics of importance to the respondent that are not listed explicitly on the guide and, therefore, would not normally be explored with each person interviewed. For example, respondents might comment on their reactions to staff, reactions to written materials, and reactions to specific program components. Comments on these concerns might emerge when, in accordance with the interview guide, the trainee is asked for reactions to program strengths, weaknesses, and so on, but if staff are not mentioned by the respondent, the interviewer would not raise that issue.

An additional, more detailed example of the interview guide approach is included as Appendix 7.1. The example in the appendix illustrates how it is possible to use a detailed outline guide to conduct a series of interviews with the same respondents over the course of a year. The guide in the appendix is the outline for a "descriptive interview" developed by the Educational Testing Service Collaborative Research Project on Reading.

The flexibility permitted by the interview guide approach will become clearer after reviewing the third strategy of qualitative interviewing in the next section.

THE STANDARDIZED OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW

In many cases, when conducting a program evaluation, it is only possible to interview participants for a limited period of time. Sometimes it is only possible to interview each participant once. At other times it is possible and desirable to interview participants before they enter the program, when they leave the program, and again after some period of time (for example, six months) after they have left the program. Because of limited time, and because it is desirable to have the same information from each person interviewed, a standardized open-ended format may be used in which each person is asked essentially the same questions. The interview questions are written out in advance *exactly* the way they are to be asked during the interview. Careful consideration is given before the interview about how to word each question. Any clarifications or elaborations that are to be used are written into the interview itself. Probing questions are placed in the interview at appropriate places. The basic purpose of the standardized open-ended interview is to minimize interviewer effects by asking the same question of each respondent. Moreover, the interview is systematic and the necessity for interviewer judgment during the interview is reduced. The standardized open-ended interview also makes data analysis easier because it is possible to locate each respondent's answer to the same question rather quickly and to organize questions and answers that are similar.

There are three major reasons for using standardized open-ended interviews as part of an evaluation:

(1) the exact instrument used in the evaluation is available for inspection by decision makers and information users;
(2) variation among interviewers can be minimized where a number of different interviewers must be used; and
(3) the interview is highly focused so that interviewee time is carefully used.

In many cases it is sufficient to make available a topical interview guide for decision makers and information users to inspect. However, the problems of legitimacy and credibility for qualitative data can make it politically wise to produce an exact interview form that one can show to decision makers and information users, telling them with certainty that these are the exact questions that will be asked of clients or others who are interviewed. By generating a standardized form decision makers and information users can participate more completely in writing the interview instrument before the interview is used. They will then know exactly what is going to be asked and what is not going to be asked. This reduces the likelihood of the data being attacked later because certain questions were missed or asked in the wrong way. By making it clear, in advance of data collection, exactly what questions will be asked, the limitations of the data can be known and discussed beforehand.

A related political problem is asking different questions of different clients. While a phenomenological approach, and even the interview guideline approach, have the strengths of permitting greater flexibility and individualization, these approaches also open up the possibility that more information will be collected from some people than from others. When analyzing the data it becomes difficult to be certain how the findings are influenced by these qualitative differences in the depth and breadth of information received from different people. For the conduct of basic research, when one is attempting to understand the holistic world view of a group of people it is not necessary to collect the same information from each person. The political credibility of the data collected is less of an issue under basic research conditions. However, when using qualitative data-collection procedures for evaluation purposes, it is often helpful to minimize issues of legitimacy and credibility by carefully collecting the same information from everyone who is interviewed.

The standardized open-ended interview also reduces variation among interviewers. Some evaluations rely on volunteers to do interviewing; at other times program staff may be involved in doing some interviewing; and in still other instances interviewers may be novices, students, or others who are not professional social scientists/evaluators. When a number of different interviewers are used, variations in data created by differences among interviewers will become particularly apparent if an informal conversational approach to data-gathering is used or even if each interviewer uses a basic guide. The best way to guard against variations among interviewers is to carefully word questions in advance and train the interviewers not to deviate from the precise forms. The data collected are still open-ended, in the sense that the respondent supplies his or her own words, thoughts, and insights in answering the questions, but the precise wording of the questions is determined ahead of time.

The weakness of this approach is that it does not permit the interviewer to pursue topics or issues that were not anticipated when the interview was written. Constraints are also placed on the use of different lines of questioning with different people based on their unique experiences. Therefore, a standardized open-ended interview approach will reduce the extent to which individual differences and circumstances can be taken into account; on the other hand, this approach can reduce individual interviewer effects and facilitate data analysis.

Just as it was possible to some extent to combine a phenomenological approach with an interview guide approach, it is also possible to combine an interview guide approach with a standardized open-ended approach. Thus, a number of basic questions may be worded precisely in a predetermined fashion, while permitting the interviewer more flexibility in probing and more decision-making flexibility in determining when it is appropriate to explore certain subjects in greater depth, or even to undertake whole new areas of inquiry that were not originally included in the interview instrument. It is even possible to adopt a standardized open-ended interview format in the early part of an interview and then leave the interviewer free to pursue any subjects of interest during the latter parts of the interview. Another combination would include using a phenomenological approach (the informal conversational interview) early in the evaluation project, followed midway through by an interview guide, and then closing the program evaluation with a standardized open-ended interview to give systematic information from a sample of participants at the end of the program or when conducting follow-up studies of participants.

To illustrate the standardized open-ended interview three interviews have been reproduced in Appendix 7.2. These interviews were used to gather information from participants in an Outward Bound wilderness program for disabled persons. The first interview was conducted at the beginning of the program; the second interview was used at the end of the ten-day experience; and the third interview took place six months after the program.

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWING STRATEGIES

The common characteristic of all three qualitative approaches to interviewing is that the persons being interviewed respond in their own words to express their own personal perspectives. While there are variations in strategy concerning the extent to which the wording and sequencing of questions ought to be predetermined, there is no variation in the principle that the response format should be open-ended. The interviewer never supplies and predetermines the phrases or categories that must be used by respondents to express themselves. The purpose of qualitative interviewing in evaluation is to understand how program staff and participants view the program, to learn their terminology and judgments, and to capture the complexities of their individual perceptions and experiences. This is what distinguishes qualitative interviewing from the closed interview, questionnaire, or test typically used in quantitative evaluations. Such closed instruments force program participants to fit their knowledge, experiences, and feelings into the evaluator's categories. *The fundamental principle of qualitative interviewing is to provide a framework within which respondents can express their own understandings in their own terms.*

Table 7.1 summarizes the basic variations in evaluation research interview instrumentation. In reviewing this summary table it is important to keep in mind that these are presented as pure types. In practice any particular evaluation may employ several of these strategies or combinations of approaches.

Table 7.1 Variations in Evaluation Research Interview Instrumentation

Type of Interview	*Characteristics*	*Strengths*	*Weaknesses*
1. Informal conversational interview	Questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of things; there is no predetermination of question topics or wording.	Increases the salience and relevance of questions; interviews are built on and emerge from observations; the interview can be matched to individuals and circumstances.	Different information collected from different people with different questions. Less systematic and comprehensive if certain questions don't arise "naturally." Data organization and analysis can be quite difficult.
2. Interview guide approach	Topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form; interviewer decides sequence and working of questions in the course of the interview.	The outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. Logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed. Interviews remain fairly conversational and situational.	Important and salient topics may be inadvertently omitted. Interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording questions can result in substantially different respondents, thus reducing the comparability of responses.
3. Standardized open-ended interview	The exact wording and sequence of questions are determined in advance. All interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order.	Respondents answer the same questions, thus increasing comparability of responses; data are complete for each person on the topics addressed in the interview. Reduces interviewer effects and bias when several interviewers are used. Permits decision makers to see and review the instrumentation used in the evaluation. Facilitates organization and analysis of the data.	Little flexibility in relating the interview to particular individuals and circumstances; standardized wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of questions and answers.
4. Closed quantitative interviews	Questions and response categories are determined in advance. Responses are fixed; respondent chooses from among these fixed responses.	Data analysis is simple; responses can be directly compared and easily aggregated; many questions can be asked in a short time.	Respondents must fit their experiences and feelings into the researcher's categories; may be perceived as impersonal, irrelevant, and mechanistic. Can distort what respondents really mean or experienced by so completely limiting their response choices.

THE CONTENT OF INTERVIEWS: WHAT QUESTIONS TO ASK

A number of decisions must be made in conceptualizing an interview, whether the interview takes place spontaneously in the field or is carefully prepared as a standardized open-ended instrument. The evaluator must decide what questions to ask, how to sequence questions, how much detail to solicit, how long to make the interview, and how to word the actual questions. These are all measurement questions that will affect the quality of interview responses. There are basically six kinds of questions that can be asked of people. On any given topic it is possible to ask any of these questions.

EXPERIENCE/BEHAVIOR QUESTIONS

These are questions about what a person does or has done. These questions are aimed at eliciting descriptions of experiences, behaviors, actions, and activities that would have been observable had the observer been present. "If I had been in the program with you, what would I have seen you doing?" "If I followed you through a typical day, what would I see you doing, what experiences would I observe you having?"

OPINION/VALUE QUESTIONS

These are questions aimed at understanding the cognitive and interpretive processes of people. Answers to these questions tell us what people *think* about the world or about a specific program. They tell us about people's goals, intentions, desires, and values. These questions typically carry an implication of respondent rationality and decision-making. "What do you believe?" "What do you think about?" "What would you like to see happen?" "What is your opinion of ?"

FEELING QUESTIONS

These are questions aimed at understanding the emotional responses of people to their experiences and thoughts. There is an implicit assumption of spontaneity about the origin of emotional responses. Feelings occur inside people; they are their natural, emotional responses to what happens around them or to them. Feelings tap the affective dimension of human life. In asking feeling questions, the interviewer is looking for adjective responses, for example, "Do you feel anxious, happy, afraid, intimidated, confident, . . .?"

Opinions and feelings are often confused. It is critical that interviewers understand the distinction between the two in order to know when they have the kind of answer they want to the question they are asking. Suppose an interviewer asks: "How do you feel about that?" The response is: "I think it's probably the best that we can do under the circumstances." The question about *feelings* has not really been answered. Analytical, interpretive, and opinion statements are not answers to questions about feelings.

This confusion sometimes occurs because interviewers give the wrong cues when asking questions—for example, by asking opinion questions using the format "How do you feel about that?" instead of "What is your opinion abut that?" or "What do you think about it?" When one wants to understand the respondents' emotional reactions it is appropriate to ask about feelings. When one wants to understand what they think about something, the question should explicitly ask about opinions, beliefs, and considered judgments—not about feelings.

KNOWLEDGE QUESTIONS

Knowledge questions are asked to find out what factual information the respondent has. The assumption here is that certain things are considered to be *known*—these things are not opinions, they are not feelings; rather, they are the things that one *knows*, the facts of the case. Knowledge about a program may consist of reporting on what services are available, who is eligible, the characteristics of clients, who the program serves, how long people spend in the program, what the rules and regulations of the program are, how one enrolls in the program, and so on. While from a philosophical point of view it is possible to argue that all knowledge is merely a set of beliefs rather than facts, the issue here is to find out what the person being interviewed considers to be factual. It is the respondent's perspective on the empirical nature of the world that is being elicited.

SENSORY QUESTIONS

These are questions about what is seen, heard, touched, tasted, and smelled. The purpose of these questions is to allow the interviewer to enter into the sensory apparatus of the respondent. "When you walk through the doors of the program, what do you see? Describe to me what I would see if I walked through the doors into the program." Or again: "What does the counselor ask you when you meet with him? What does he actually say?" Sensory questions attempt to have interviewees describe the stimuli to which they are subject.

BACKGROUND/DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

These questions concern the identifying characteristics of the person being interviewed. Answers to these questions help the interviewer locate the respondent in relation to other people. Age, education, occupation, residence/mobility questions, and the like are standard background questions. They are distinguishable from knowledge questions primarily because of their routine nature.

Behaviors, opinions, feelings, knowledge, sensations, and demographics: these are the kinds of questions that it is possible to ask in an interview. Any kind of question one might want to ask can be subsumed in one of these categories. Keeping these types of questions in mind can be particularly helpful when it comes to planning the comprehensiveness of the interview and ordering the questions in some sequence. Before considering the sequence of questions, however, it is important to consider how the time dimension intersects with the different kinds of questions.

THE TIME FRAME OF QUESTIONS

Any of the questions described above can be asked in the present tense, past tense, or future tense. For example, it is possible to ask a person what they are doing now, what they have done in the past, and what they plan to do in the future. Likewise, one might be interested in present attitudes, past attitudes, or future attitudes. By combining the time frame of questions with the different type of questions it is possible to construct a matrix which generates eighteen different types of questions. Table 7.2 shows that matrix.

Asking all eighteen questions about any particular situation, event, or programmatic activity may become somewhat tedious, especially if the sequence is repeated over and over throughout the interview for different program elements. The matrix constitutes a set of options from which one can select which pieces of information are most important to obtain. In order to understand how these options are applied in an actual interview situation it may be helpful to review an actual interview. The Outward Bound standardized

Table 7.2 A Matrix of Question Options

	Past	*Present*	*Future*
Behavior/Experience Questions			
Opinion/Value Questions			
Feeling Questions			
Knowledge Questions			
Sensory Questions			
Demographic/Background Questions			

interview in Appendix 7.2 might be used for this purpose. Try identifying which cell in the matrix (Table 7.2) is represented by *each* question in the Outward Bound interviews.

THE SEQUENCING OF QUESTIONS

There are no fixed rules of sequence in organizing an interview. Informal conversational interviewing is flexible and responsive so that a fixed sequence is seldom possible. However, standardized open-ended interviews must establish a fixed sequence of questions due to their structured format. I offer, then, some suggestions about sequencing.

I prefer to begin the interview with questions about noncontroversial present behaviors, activities, and experiences. Such questions ask for relatively straightforward descriptions; they require minimal recall and interpretation. Such questions are therefore fairly easy to answer. They encourage the respondent to talk descriptively. Probes should focus on eliciting greater detail—filling out the descriptive picture.

Once some experience or activity has been described it is appropriate to ask about interpretations, opinions, and feelings about the behaviors and actions described. Opinions and feelings are likely to be more accurate at this point in the interview because the respondent has just verbally relived the experience. Thus, a context is established for expressing feelings and opinions.

Knowledge and skill questions also typically need a context. These questions can be quite threatening. It is helpful to ask them in conjunction with specific questions about program activities and experiences that have a bearing on knowledge and skills. Finding out from people what they know and what skills they possess works best once some rapport and trust have been established in the interview. Relating knowledge and skills to descriptions of program activity can help provide a concrete context for these kinds of questions.

Questions about the present tend to be easier for respondents than questions about the past. Future-oriented questions involve considerable speculation, and responses to questions about future actions or attitudes are typically less reliable than questions about the present or past. I generally prefer to begin by asking questions about the present, then, using the present as a baseline, ask questions about the same activity or attitude in the past. Only then will I broach questions about the future.

Background and demographic questions are basically boring; they epitomize what people don't like about interviews. They can also be somewhat uncomfortable for the respondent, depending on how personal they are. I keep such questions to an absolute minimum and prefer to space them strategically and unobtrusively throughout the interview. I advise never beginning an interview with a long list of routine demographic questions. In qualitative interviewing the interviewee needs to become actively involved in providing descriptive information as soon as possible instead of becoming conditioned to providing short-answer, routine responses to uninteresting categorical questions. Some background information may be necessary at the beginning to make sense out of the rest of the interview, but such questions should be tied to descriptive information about present program experience as much as possible. Otherwise, save the sociological-demographic inquiries (age, socioeconomic status, birth order, and the like) for the end.

THE WORDING OF QUESTIONS

An interview question is a stimulus that is aimed at creating or generating a response from the person being interviewed. The way a question is worded is one of the most important elements determining how the interviewee will respond. As Payne (1951) put it, asking questions is an art. For purposes of qualitative measurement, good questions should, at a minimum, be open-ended, neutral, singular, and clear. Each of these criteria will be discussed in some detail.

ASKING TRULY OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

The basic thrust of qualitative measurement is to minimize the imposition of predetermined responses when gathering data. When using qualitative interviewing strategies for data collection it is critical that questions be asked in a truly open-ended fashion. This means that the question should permit respondents to respond in their own terms.

The standard questionnaire item in quantitative measurement provides the respondent with a categorical list of response possibilities: "How do you feel about the program? Would you say that you are (a) very satisfied, (b) somewhat satisfied, (c) not too satisfied, (d) not at all satisfied." It is clear in this instance that the question is closed and that the respondent has been provided with a limited and predetermined set of alternatives. The response possibilities are clearly stated and made *explicit* in the way in which the question is asked. Many interviewers think that the way to make a question open-ended is simply to leave out the structured response categories. Such an approach does *not,* however, make a question truly open-ended. It merely makes the predetermined response categories implicit and disguised. Consider the following "open-ended" question: "How satisfied are you with this program?" On the surface this appears to be an open-ended question. On close inspection, however, it is clear that the dimension along which the respondent can answer the question has already been identified. The respondent is being asked for some degree of satisfaction. It is true that the interviewee can use a variety of modifiers for the word satisfaction—for example, "pretty satisfied," "kind of satisfied," "mostly satisfied," and so on. But in effect the response set has been narrowly limited by the wording of the question. The desired dimension of response is identified in the wording of the question such that the typical answers are only slightly different from those that would have been obtained had the categories been made explicit from the start.

The truly open-ended question does not presuppose which dimensions of feeling, analysis, or thought will be salient for the interviewee. The truly open-ended question allows the person being interviewed to select from among that person's full repertoire of possible responses. Indeed, in qualitative measurement one of the things the evaluator is trying to determine is what dimensions, themes, and images/words people associate with the program use among themselves to describe their feelings, thoughts, and experiences. Examples, then, of truly open-ended questions would take the following format:

> How do you feel about the program?
>
> What is your opinion of the program?
>
> What do you think of the program?

The truly open-ended question permits persons being interviewed to take whatever direction and use whatever words they want in order to represent what they have to say.

To be truly open-ended a question cannot be phrased as a dichotomy. In the next section we shall consider the problem of dichotomous questions in interviews.

THE HORNS OF A DICHOTOMY

Dichotomous response questions provide the interviewee with a grammatical structure suggesting a "yes" or "no" answer.

> Are you satisfied with the program?
>
> Have you changed as a result of your participation in this program?
>
> Was this an important experience for you?
>
> Do you know the procedures for enrolling in the program?
>
> Have you interacted much with the staff in the program?

The object of an in-depth interview is to get the person being interviewed to talk about their experiences, feelings, opinions, and knowledge. Far from encouraging the respondent to talk, dichotomous response questions create a dilemma for the respondent because they frequently are not sure whether they are being asked a simple yes-no question or if, indeed, the interviewer expects a more elaborate response. I have found in many cases that interviewers who report that they have difficulty getting respondents to talk are using a string of dichotomous response questions to guide the interview and thereby have programmed the respondent to be entirely reactive in a binary way, allowing the interviewer to supply the content to the interview. Perhaps the classic example is a conversation between a parent and a teenager.

> (Teenager returns home from a date.)
> Oh, you're home a bit late?
> Yeah.
> Did you have a good time?
> Yeah.
> Did you go to a movie?

Yeah.
Was it a good movie?
Yeah, it was ok.
So, it was worth seeing?
Yeah, it was worth seeing.
I've heard a lot about it. Do you think I would like it?
I don't know. Maybe.
Anything else you'd like to tell me about your evening?
No, I guess that's it.
(Teenager goes upstairs to bed. One parent turns to the other and says: It sure is hard to get him to talk to us. I guess he's at that age where kids just don't want to tell their parents anything.)

Dichotomous response questions give an interview the aura of an interrogation or a quiz rather than an in-depth conversation. In everyday conversation our interactions with each other are filled with dichotomous response questions which we unconsciously ignore and treat as if they were open-ended questions. In a more formal interview setting, however, the interviewee will become more conscious of the grammatical structure of questions and is less likely to ignore questions that pose dichotomous alternatives. Indeed, the more intense and concentrated the interview situation, the more likely the respondent is to pay close attention to the structure of questions and to take questions literally.

In training interviewers I like to play a game where I will only respond literally to the questions asked without volunteering any information that is not clearly demanded in the question. I do this before explaining the difficulties involved in asking dichotomous questions. I have played this game hundreds of times, and the reaction is typically the same. When getting dichotomous responses to general questions, the interviewer will begin to rely on more and more specific dichotomous response questions, thereby digging a deeper and deeper hole which makes it difficult to pull the interview out of the dichotomous response pattern. Transcribed below is an actual interview from a training workshop. In the left column I have recorded the interview that took place; the right column records a truly open-ended alternative to the dichotomous response question that was asked.

INTERVIEW DEMONSTRATION

Instruction: Okay, now we're going to play an interviewing game. I want you to take turns asking me questions about an evaluation I just completed. The program being evaluated was a staff development demonstration project that involved taking professionals into a wilderness setting for a week. That's all I'm going to tell you at this point. I'll answer your questions as precisely as I can, but I'll only answer what you ask. I won't volunteer any information that isn't directly asked for by your questions.

	Actual interview	*What the interviewer really wanted to know*
Question:	Were you the evaluator of this program?	What was your role in this program?
Answer:	Yes.	
Q:	Were you doing a formative evaluation?	What was the purpose of the evaluation?
A:	Mostly.	
Q:	Were you trying to find out if the people changed from being in the wilderness?	What were you trying to find out in doing the evaluation?
A:	That was part of it.	
Q:	Did they change?	How did participation in the program affect participants?
A:	Some of them did.	
Q:	Did you interview people both before and after the program?	What kinds of information did you collect for the evaluation?
A:	Yes.	
Q:	Did you also go along as a participant in the program?	How were you personally involved in the program?
A:	Yes.	
Q:	Did you find that being in the program affected what happened?	How do you think your participation in the program affected what happened?
A:	Yes.	
Q:	Did you have a good time?	What was the wilderness experience like for you?
A:	Yes.	

	Actual interview	*What the interviewer really wanted to know*
Q:	Are you reluctant to tell us about the program?	I'd like to find out more about the program. What would be the best way for me to learn more from you about it?
A:	No.	

This is clearly an extreme example of using dichotomous response questions in an interview. It should be clear, however, that the truly open-ended questions would have generated quite different information than was being generated, and was likely to be generated, by the dichotomous response questions. In addition, dichotomous response questions can easily become leading questions. Once the interviewer begins to deal with what appears to be a reluctant or timid interviewee, by asking more and more detailed dichotomous response questions he or she can easily begin guessing at possible responses and actually impose those responses on the person being interviewed. One sure sign that this is happening is when the interviewer is doing more talking than the person being interviewed. Consider the following excerpt from an actual interview. This occurred with a teenager who was participating in a chemical dependency program. The interview took place during the time the teenager was involved in the program.

	Interview	*Comments*
Q:	Hello, John. It's nice to see you again. I'm anxious to find out what's been happening with you. Can I ask you some questions about your experience?	The opening is dominated by the interviewer. No informal give-and-take. The interviewee is set up to take a passive/reactive role.
A:	Okay.	
Q:	I'd like you to think about some of the really important experiences you've had here. Can you think of something that stands out in your mind?	Introductory cue sentence is immediately followed by a dichotomous response question.
A:	Yeah, . . . the hot seat.	John goes beyond the dichotomous response.
Q:	The hot seat is when one person is the focus of attention for the whole group, right?	The interviewer has provided the definition, rather than getting John's own definition of the hot seat.
A:	Right.	
Q:	So, what was it like . . . ? Was this the first time you've seen the "hot seat" used?	Began open-ended, then changed the question and made a dichotomous response question. The question is no longer singular or open.
A:	One person does it every day.	Answer goes beyond the question.
Q:	Is it different with different people?	Question follows previous answer but still a dichotomous response format.
A:	Yeah, it depends.	
Q:	Well, how about telling me about one that really stands out in your mind.	Spoken as a statement but has the structure of a dichotomous response question.
A:	Okay, let's see, hmm . . . there was this guy yesterday who really got nailed. I mean, he really caught a lot of crap from the group. It was really heavy.	Before responding to the open request John reacts to the dichotomous response format.
Q:	Did you say anything?	Dichotomous response question.
A:	No, it was them others.	
Q:	So what was it like for you? Did you get caught up in it? You said it was really heavy. Was it heavy for you or just him or the group?	Multiple questions. Unclear connections. Ambiguous, multiple-choice format at the end.
A:	Yeah, right, and it really got to him.	John's positive answer ("Yeah, right") is actually uninterpretable, given the questions asked.

Q:	Did you think it was good for him? Did it help him?	Dichotomous response question.
A:	He started crying and got mad and one guy really came down on him and afterwards they were talking, and it seemed to be okay for him.	John wants to describe what happened. The narrowness of the interview questions are limiting his description.
Q:	So it was really intense?	Leading question, setting up an easy acquiescence response.
A:	Yeah, it really was.	
Q:	And you got really involved.	Same as previous question.
A:	It was pretty heavy.	John doesn't actually respond to the question. Ambiguous response.
Q:	Okay, I want to ask you some about the lecture part of the program. Anything else you want to say about the hot seat?	Transition. John is cued that the hot seat questions are over.
	(John doesn't answer verbally. Sits and waits for the next questions.	

The person conducting this interview said that she wanted to find out two things in this portion of the interview: what experiences were most salient for John; and how personally involved John was becoming in the experience. She has learned that the "hot seat" was highly salient for John, but she really knows very little about the reasons for that salience. With regard to the second question of his personal involvement, the only data she has comes from his acquiescence to leading questions. In fact, if one lists the data from the interview, there is very little there:

Okay.

Yeah, . . . the hot seat.

Right.

One person does it every day.

Yeah, it depends.

Okay, let's see, hmmm . . . there was this guy yesterday who really got nailed. I mean he really caught a lot of crap from the group. It was really heavy.

No, it was them others.

Yeah, right, and it really got to him.

He started crying and got mad and one guy really came down on him and afterwards they were talking, and it seemed to be okay for him.

Yeah, it really was.

It was pretty heavy.

In looking over the transcript of this portion of the interview, it is clear that the interviewer is talking more than the interviewee. The questions put the interviewee in a passive stance, able to confirm or deny the substance provided by the interviewer but not really given the opportunity to provide in-depth, descriptive detail.

PRESUPPOSITION QUESTIONS

Presuppositions are a major focus of study for many linguists (Kartunnen, 1973; Bandler and Grinder, 1975). Natural language is filled with presuppositions. In the course of communicating as we go about our day-to-day activities, it would be impossible to interact with other people without relying heavily on presuppositions. The dominance of presupposition structures in language has important implications for interviewing. By becoming aware of the effects of presupposition structures in interviewing situations, it is possible for the skillful interviewer to use presuppositions to increase the richness and depth of responses and data obtained. What then, are presuppositions? Linguists Grinder and Bandler define presuppositions as follows:

> [W]hen each of us uses a natural language system to communicate, we assume that the listener can decode complex sound structures into meanings, i.e., the listener has the ability to derive the Deep-Structure meaning from the Surface-Structure we present to him auditorily. . . . [W]e also assume the complex skill of listeners to derive extra meaning from some Surface-Structures by the nature of their form. Even though neither the speaker nor the listener may be aware of this process, it goes on all the time. For example, if someone says:
>
> *I want to watch Kung Fu tonight on TV*
>
> we must understand that Kung Fu is on TV tonight in order to process the sentence ***I want to watch*** . . . to make any sense. These processes are called presuppositions of natural language [Bandler and Grinder, 1975: 241].

Presuppositions are particularly useful in interviewing because the interviewer presupposes that the respondent has something to say. Such a presupposition increases the likelihood that the person being interviewed will, indeed, have something to say. Consider the following question: "What is the most important experience you had in the program?" This question presupposes that the respondent has had an important experience. The person of whom the question is asked, of course, has the option of responding, "I haven't had any important experiences." However, it is more likely that the interviewee will go directly to the issue of which experience to report as important, rather than dealing first with the question of whether or not an important experience has occurred. Contrast the presupposition format of the open-ended question to the format of the following dichotomous response question: "Have you had any experiences in the program so far that you would call really important?" This dichotomous response question requires the person to make a decision about what an important experience is and whether or not an important experience has occurred. By raising the question at all, the interviewer focuses on the decision about whether or not something important has occurred, rather than finding out what has occurred. The presupposition format, then, bypasses this initial step by asking directly for description rather than asking for an affirmation of the existence of the phenomenon in question. Listed below on the left are typical dichotomous response questions that are used to introduce a longer series of questions. On the right are presuppositions asked in a truly open-ended format that bypass the dichotomous response questions.

ALTERNATIVE QUESTION FORMATS

Dichotomous response lead-in question	*Presupposition lead-in question*
Do you feel like you know enough about the program to assess its effectiveness?	How effective do you think the program is? (Presupposes that a judgment can be made)
	What do you know about the program that leads you to say that? (Presupposes some knowledge of the program)
Have you learned anything from this program?	What have you learned from this program? (Presupposes some learning)
Do you do anything now in your work that you didn't do before the program began?	What do you do now that you didn't do before the program began (Presupposes change)
Is there any misuse of funds in this program?	What kinds of misuse of funds have occurred in this program? (Presupposes at least some misuse of funds)
Are there any conflicts among the staff?	What kinds of staff conflicts have occurred here? (Presupposes conflicts)

There is often a naturalness about the use of presuppositions that makes more comfortable what might be otherwise embarrassing questions. The presupposition includes the implication that what is presupposed is the natural way things occur: It is natural for there to be conflict in programs; it is natural for there to be some misuse of funds in programs; and it is natural for people to have learned something from participation in a program. The presupposition provides a stimulus that asks the respondent to assess the answer to the question directly without making a decision about whether or not something has actually occurred.

I first learned about presuppositions in interviewing from a friend who worked with the agency in New York City that had responsibility for interviewing carriers of venereal disease. The purpose of the interviews was to find out about the carrier's previous sexual contacts so that those persons could be informed that they might have venereal disease. He had learned from experience that there was all the difference in the world between asking a man, "Have you had any sexual relationships with other men?" and asking him, "How many sexual contacts with other men have you had?" The dichotomous response question requires a decision about some admission of homosexuality. The presupposition form of the open-ended question suggests that some sexual contacts with other men might be quite natural, and focuses on the frequency of occurrence rather than whether or not the event has occurred at all. The venereal disease interviewers found that they were much more likely to generate responses with the presupposition format than with the dichotomous response format.

The real point here is that the purpose of in-depth interviews is to find out what someone has to say. By presupposing that the person being interviewed does, indeed, have something to say, the quality of the descriptions received is likely to be enhanced.

ASKING SINGULAR QUESTIONS

One of the basic rules of questionnaire writing is that each item must be singular—that is, no more than one idea should be contained in any given question. Consider this example: "How well do you know and like the staff in this program? (a) a lot; (b) pretty much; (c) not too much; (d) not at all." This item is impossible to interpret in analysis because it asks two questions: (1) How well do you know the staff? (2) How much do you like the staff? Therefore, this is a poor questionnaire item.

When one turns to open-ended interviewing, however, many people think there is no longer a need for the same precision in asking questions. I have seen transcripts of interviews conducted by experienced and well-known field researchers in which several questions have been thrown together which they might think are related but which are likely to confuse the person being interviewed about what is really being asked.

> In order to help the staff improve the program, we'd like to ask you to talk about your opinion of the program. What you think are the strengths and weaknesses of the program? What you like? What you don't like? What you think could be improved or should stay the same?

The evaluator who used this question regularly in interviewing argued that by asking a series of questions it was possible to find out what was most salient to the person being interviewed because the interviewee was forced to choose what he or she most cared about in order to respond to the question. The evaluator would then probe more specifically in those areas which were not answered in the initial question.

My own experience is that multiple questions create tension and confusion because the person being interviewed doesn't really know what is being asked. An analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of a program is not the same as reporting what one likes and dislikes about a program. Likewise, recommendations for change may be unrelated to strengths, weaknesses, likes, and dislikes. The following is an excerpt from an interview with a parent participating in a family education program aimed at helping parents become more effective as parents.

Q: Based on your experience, what would you say are the strengths of this program?

A: The other parents. Different parents can get together and talk about what being a parent is like for them. The program is really parents with parents. Parents really need to talk to other parents about what to do and what they do do and what works and doesn't work. It's the parents, it really is.

Q: What about weaknesses?

A: I don't know . . . I guess I'm not always sure that the program is really getting to the parents who need it the most. I don't really know how you do that, but I just think there are probably a lot of parents out there who need the program and . . . especially maybe single-parent families. And fathers. It's really hard to get fathers into something like this. It should just get to everybody and that's real hard.

Q: Let me ask you now about some of your feelings about the program. What are some of the things that you really have liked about the program?

A: I'd like to put the staff right at the top of that. I really like the program director. She's a really well-educated person and knows a lot, but she never makes us feel dumb. We can say anything or ask anything. She treats us like people, like equals even. I like the other parents. And I like being able to bring my daughter along. They take her into the child's part of the program, but we come together. It's something for us to do together and she has her time and I have my time.

Q: What about dislikes? What are some things you don't like so much about the program?

A: I don't like the time that we meet. We meet in the afternoons after lunch and it kind of breaks into the day at a bad time for me, but there isn't any really good time for all the parents and I know they've tried different times. Time is always going to be a hassle for people. Maybe they could just offer different things at different times. The room we meet in isn't too great but that's no big deal.

Q: Okay, you've given us a lot of information about your experiences in the program, strengths and weaknesses you've observed, and some of the things you've liked and haven't liked so much. Now I'd like to ask you about your recommendations for the program. If you had the power to change things about the program, what would you make different?

> A: Well, I guess the first thing is money. It's always money. I just think they should put, you know, the legislature should put more money into programs like this. I don't know how much the director gets paid, but I hear that she's not even getting paid as much as school teachers. She should get paid like a professional. I think there should be more of these programs and more money in them. Oh, I know what I'd recommend. We talked about it one time in our group. It would be neat to have some parents who have already been through the program come back and talk with new groups about what they've done with their kids since they've been in the program, you know, like problems that they didn't expect or things that didn't work out, or just getting experience of parents who've already been through the program to help new parents. We talked about that one day and thought that would be a neat thing to do. I don't know if it would work, but it would be a neat thing. I wouldn't mind doing it, I guess.

Each of these questions solicited a different response. Qualitative measurement through in-depth interviewing requires no less precision in asking questions than is demanded by questionnaires constructed for quantitative measurement. The most important theme running through this discussion of question formulation is that the wording used in asking questions makes a tremendous difference in the kind of response that is received. The interviewer who throws out a bunch of questions all at once to see which one takes hold puts an unnecessary burden on the interviewee to decipher what is being asked. In addition, multiple questions asked at the same time usually mean that the interviewer hasn't figured out what question should be asked at that juncture in the interview, so the interviewer takes the easy way out by asking several questions at once.

Asking several questions at once can also cause the interviewer to lose control of the interview. Given multiple stimuli, the interviewee, not being sure of the focus of the question, is free to go off in any direction at all, including providing information that is irrelevant to the issues under examination. In conducting evaluation interviews there is virtually always a limited amount of time available; both interviewers and respondents have only so much time to give to an interview. To make the best use of that time, it is helpful to prepare highly focused questions that elicit genuine and relevant responses. This means that the interviewer must know what issues are important enough to ask questions about, and to ask those questions in a way that the person being interviewed can clearly identify what it is they are being asked.

CLARITY OF QUESTIONS

It is the responsibility of the interviewer to make it clear to the interviewee what is being asked. Asking questions that are understandable is an important part of establishing rapport. Unclear questions can make the person being interviewed feel uncomfortable, ignorant, confused, or hostile. Asking singular questions helps a great deal to make things clear. There are a number of other factors that contribute to clarity.

First, in preparing to do an interview, one should find out what terms are being used by respondents when they refer to the program being evaluated. State and national programs are often labeled differently at the local level than they are in the higher offices which fund them. In evaluating local CETA programs (Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Programs) local contractors are funded to establish and implement services in their area. Participants know those programs by the name of the local contractor, such as "Youth Employment Services," "Work for Youth," and "Working Opportunities for Women." Many participants in these programs did not know they were in CETA programs. Conducting an interview with these participants where the word CETA was used would have been confusing and disruptive to the interview.

This can also occur within an agency. Agencies that provide multiple services typically have subunits with their own programmatic names and identities. Participants may identify only with subunit names and not with the larger agency. In other instances the agency may be identified completely with the subunit program. In still other cases the same participants may have participated in a number of subunit programs and therefore find it difficult to respond to questions aimed at evaluating the overall agency. In short, the interviewer carries the burden of (1) deciding which is the appropriate unit about which to question the program participant and (2) learning the language that participants use in talking about that particular unit of analysis.

Second, the clarity of interview questions will depend on understanding what language participants use among themselves in talking about program activities or other aspects of program life. This is a different issue from the question of what the program is labeled. The kind of issue that arises here, for example, concerns how participants refer to program staff. When we interviewed juveniles who had been placed in foster group homes by juvenile courts we had to spend a good deal of preparatory time trying to find out how the juveniles typically referred to the group home parents, to their natural parents, to probation officers, and to each other in order to ask questions *clearly* about each of those sets of people. For example, when asking about relationships with peers, should we use the word "juveniles," "adolescents," "youth," "teenagers," or what? In preparation for the interviews we checked with a number of juveniles, group home parents, and court authorities about the proper language to use. There was complete consensus that the best language was to talk about "the other kids in the group home." There was no consensus at all about how "kids in the group home" referred to group home parents. Thus, one of the questions we had to ask in each interview was: "What do you usually call Mr. and Mrs. ______?" We then used the language given to us by that youth throughout the rest of the interview to refer to group home parents.

Third, providing clarity in interview questions may mean avoiding using labels altogether. This means that when asking about a particular program component it may be better to first find out what the interviewee believes that component to be and then to ask questions about the descriptions provided by the person being interviewed. An evaluation of open classrooms in North Dakota included interviews with parents. All of the parents interviewed had children who were participating in an open classroom. However, many of the teachers and local school officials did not use the term "open" to refer to these classrooms because they wanted to avoid political conflicts and stereotypes that were sometimes associated with the notion of "open education." Thus, when interviewing parents we found that we could not ask general questions concerning their opinions about and feelings toward "open education." Rather, we had to begin with a sequence of questions like the following:

> What kinds of differences have you noticed between your child's classroom last year and the classroom this year?
>
> Ok, you've mentioned several differences. Let me ask you your opinion about each of the things you've mentioned. What do you think about ____________?

This strategy in questioning avoids the problem of collecting data which later turns out to be uninterpretable because the evaluator is not sure what persons being interviewed meant by their responses.

A related problem emerged in interviewing children about their classrooms. The decision makers and information users for the evaluation were interested in, among other things, finding out the basic skill activities of children in the open classrooms. In preparing for the interviews we learned that many teachers avoided the use of terms like "math time" or "reading time" because they wanted to integrate math and reading into other activities. This meant that in many cases children did not report to parents that they did any "math" in school. These same children would be working on projects, such as the construction of a model of their town using milk cartons that required geometry, fractions, and reductions to scale, but they did not perceive of these activities as "math" because they associated math with worksheets and workbooks. Thus, to find out what kind of math activities children were doing, it was necessary to talk with them in detail about specific projects and work they were engaged in without asking them the simple question, "What kind of math do you do in the classroom?"

The theme running through these suggestions for increasing the clarity of questions relates to the importance of using language that is understandable and part of the frame of reference of the person being interviewed. It means taking special care to find out what language the interviewee uses to describe the program, the staff, program activities, or whatever else the evaluator is interested in talking about, and then using that language provided by the interviewee in the rest of the interview. Those questions which use the respondent's own language are questions which are most likely to be *clear* to the respondent.

Being clear about what you are asking contributes to the process of establishing and maintaining rapport during an interview. Using words that make sense to the interviewee, words that reflect the respondent's world view, will improve the quality of data obtained during the interview. In many cases, without sensitivity to the impact of particular words on the person being interviewed, the answer may make no sense at all—or there may be no answer. A Sufi story makes this point quite nicely.

> A man had fallen between the rails in a subway station when Nasrudin came along one afternoon. People were all crowding around trying to get him out before the train ran him over. They were all shouting, "Give me your hand!" but the man would not reach up. Mulla Nasrudin elbowed his way through the crowd and leant over the man. "Friend," he asked, "what is your profession?"
>
> "I am an income tax inspector," gasped the man. "In that case," said Nasrudin, "*take* my hand!" The man immediately grasped Mulla's hand and was hauled to safety.
>
> Nasrudin turned to the open-mouthed audience. "Never ask a tax man to *give* you anything, you fools," he said [Shah, 1973:68].

Before leaving the issue of clarity there is one other major suggestion that I would make. It is a suggestion about which there is not consensus—indeed, most researchers who use interviews would likely disagree. Nevertheless, my own experience in interviewing leads me to at least offer this suggestion: Avoid "why" questions.

WHY TO AVOID ASKING "WHY?"

"Why?" questions presume cause-effect relationships, an ordered world, perfect knowledge, and rationality. "Why?" questions presuppose that there are reasons why things occur and that those reasons are knowable. "Why?" questions move beyond what has happened, what one has experienced, how one feels, what one opines, and what one knows to the making of analytical and deductive inferences.

The difficulty of making causal inferences has been thoroughly explored at great length by philosophers of science (Bunge, 1957; Nagel, 1961). Reports from parents about "Why?" conversations with their children also document the difficulty of providing causal explanations about the world. The infinite regression quality of "Why?" questions is part of the difficulty engendered by using them as part of an interview.

> Dad, why does it get dark at night?
> Because our side of the earth turns away from the sun.
> Dad, why does our side of the earth turn away from the sun?
> Because that's the way the world was made.
> Dad, why was the world made that way?
> So that there would be light and dark.
> Dad, why should there be dark? Why can't it just be light all the time?
> Because then we would get too hot.
> Why would we get too hot?
> Because the sun would be shining on us all the time.
> Why can't the sun be cooler sometimes?
> It is, that's why we have night.
> But why can't we just have a cooler sun?
> Because that's the way the world is.
> Why is the world like that?
> It just is. Because.
> Because why?
> Just because.
> Oh.
> Daddy?
> Yes.
> Why don't you know why it gets dark?

In a program evaluation interview it might seem that the context for asking a "Why?" question would be clearer. However, if a precise reason for a particular activity is what is wanted, it is usually possible to ask that question in a way that does not involve using the word "why." Let's look first at the difficulty posed for the interviewee by the "Why?" question, and then look at some alternative phrases.

"Why did you join this program?" The actual reason for joining the program is probably made up of a constellation of factors, including the influences of other people, the nature of the program, the nature of the person being interviewed, the interviewee's expectations, and practical considerations. It is unlikely that an interviewee can sort through all of these levels of possibility at once, so the person to whom the question is posed must pick out some level at which to respond.

> "Because it was at a convenient time." (programmatic reason)
>
> "Because I'm a joiner." (personality reason)
>
> "Because a friend told me about the program." (information reason)
>
> "Because my priest told me about the program and said he thought it would be good for me." (social influence reason)
>
> "Because it was inexpensive." (economic reason)
>
> "Because I wanted to learn about the things they're teaching in the program." (outcomes reason)
>
> "Because God directed me to join the program." (personal motivation reason)
>
> "Because it was there." (philosophical reason)

Anyone being interviewed could respond at any or all of these levels. The question that the evaluator must decide before conducting the interview is which of these levels is of sufficient importance that it is worth asking a question about. If the primary evaluation question concerns characteristics of the program that attracted participants, then instead of asking, "Why did you join?" the interviewer should ask something like the following: "What was it about the program that attracted you to it?" If the evaluator is interested in learning about social influences that led to participation in a program, either voluntary or involuntary participation, a question like the following could be used:

> In most of the decisions we make there are other people who have some influence on what we do. In terms of your participation in this program, what other people played a role in your becoming part of the program?

In some cases the evaluator may be particularly interested in the characteristics of participants, so the question might be phrased in the following fashion:

> I'm interested in learning more about you as a person and your personal involvement in this program. What is it about you—your situation, your personality, your desires, whatever—what is it about you that you think led you to become part of this program?

Depending on the depth to which an evaluator wants to explore a particular situation, it might be appropriate to ask all of these questions as well as others. The point is that by thinking carefully about what one wants to know, there is a greater likelihood that respondents will supply answers that make sense and that are usable. My feelings about the difficulties raised with "Why?" questions come from trying to analyze such questions when responses cover such a multitude of dimensions that it was clear that different people were responding to different things. This makes analysis extremely difficult, and often leads to data that simply are unusable. By thinking carefully about exactly what information is needed and how it will be used, the interviewer can focus questions to make them clear to the interviewee as well as to make the responses across interviewees more systematic and comprehensive.

Even with more precise focus, questions that require the interviewer to make deductions and provide explanations are sufficiently taxing on the energy of the interviewee that such questions should be used sparingly. Social scientists in particular, given that they have so much trouble sorting out causes and effects in their own analyses, should be particularly sensitive to the difficulty posed by questions that ask for explanations.

Perhaps my reservations about the use of "Why?" questions come from having so often appeared the fool when asking such questions during interviews with children. In the open classroom interviews we were trying to find out the extent to which children chose to spend time doing interesting things in the room when children in other classrooms might be playing outside. Several teachers during their interviews had mentioned that children in open classrooms often become involved in what they were doing and chose not to go outside for recess.

> What's your favorite time in school?
> Recess.
> Why do you like recess?

> Because we go outside and play on the swings.
> Why do you go outside?
> Because that's where the swings are! (She replied with a look of incredulity that adults could ask such stupid questions.)

Children take interview questions quite literally, and so it rapidly becomes clear when a question is not well thought out. It was during those days of interviewing children in North Dakota that I learned about the problems with "Why?" questions.

NEUTRAL QUESTIONS

As an interviewer I want to establish rapport with the person I am questioning, but that rapport must be established in such a way that it does not undermine my neutrality concerning what the person tells me. Neutrality means that the person being interviewed can tell me anything without engendering either my favor or disfavor with regard to the content of their response. I cannot be shocked; I cannot be angered; I cannot be embarrassed; I cannot be saddened—indeed, nothing the person tells me will make me think more or less of them.

At the same time that I am neutral with regard to the *content* of what is being said to me, I care very much that that person is willing to share with me what they are saying. *Rapport is a stance vis-à-vis the person being interviewed. Neutrality is a stance vis-à-vis the content of what that person says.* Rapport means that I respect the people being interviewed, so what they say is important because of who is saying it. I want to convey to them that their knowledge, experiences, attitudes, and feelings are important. Yet, the content of what they say to me is not important.

Rapport is built on the ability to convey empathy and understanding without judgment. Throughout this chapter we have been considering ways of phrasing questions that facilitate the establishment of rapport. In this section I want to focus on ways of wording questions that are particularly aimed at conveying that important sense of neutrality.

One kind of question wording that can help establish neutrality is the *illustrative examples format.* When phrasing questions in this way I want to let the person I'm interviewing know that I have pretty much heard it all!—the bad things and the good things—and so I'm not interested in something that is particularly sensational, particularly negative, or especially positive. I'm really only interested in what that person's experience has been like. An example of the illustrative examples format is provided by a question taken from interviews we conducted with juvenile delinquents who had been placed in foster group homes. One section of the interview was aimed at finding out how the juveniles were treated by group home parents.

> Ok, now I'd like to ask you to tell me how you were treated in the group home by the parents. Some kids have told us that they felt that they were treated like one of the family in the group home; some kids have told us that they got knocked around and beat up by the group home parents; some kids have told us about sexual things that were done to them; some of the kids have told us about a lot of recreational and hobby kinds of things; some kids have felt they have been treated really good and some kids have been treated really bad. When you think about how *you* are treated in the group home, what kind of things come to mind?

A closely related format is the *illustrative extremes format.* With this format I attempt to let the interviewee know that I have heard it all by giving examples only of extreme responses.

> How much dope did you use while you were in the group home? I know that some kids have told me they were doped up the whole time they were in the home, they smoked or dropped stuff every day and every night, while other kids have said that they decided to stay completely straight while they were in the home. How about you?

It is critical to avoid in both the illustrative examples format and the illustrative extremes format asking a *leading* question. Leading questions are the opposite of neutral questions; they give the interviewee hints about what would be a desirable or appropriate kind of answer. Leading questions "lead" the respondent in a certain direction.

An example of a typical leading question that might be asked of juveniles is the following:

> We know that most kids use a lot of dope because that's part of what it means to be young, so we figure you use it too—right? So what do you think about everybody using dope?

This question has a built-in response bias that communicates the interviewer's belief that drug use among the young is legitimate and universal. The question is "leading" because the interviewee is led into acquiescence with the interviewer's point of view.

It is important in giving examples that the examples cover several dimensions and be balanced between what might be construed as

positive and negative kinds of responses. My own preference is to use these illustrative formats only as clarifying questions after having begun with a simple, straightforward, and truly open-ended question where the response was not constrained or influenced by any kinds of examples: "What has been your experience with the use of drugs in the group home?"

ROLE-PLAYING AND SIMULATION QUESTIONS

It is sometimes helpful to provide the interviewee with a context for responding to a question. This context provides cues about the level at which a response is expected. One way of providing such a context is to role play with persons being interviewed, asking them to respond to the interviewer as if he or she were someone else.

> Suppose I was a new person who just came into this program, and I asked you what I should do to really do well in the program. What would you tell me?
>
> or
>
> Suppose I was a new kid in this group home, and I didn't know anything about what goes on around here. What would you tell me about the rules that I have to follow?

The effect of these questions is to provide a context for what would otherwise be quite difficult questions. "How does one get the most out of this program?" "What are the rules of this group home?" The role-playing question, in this format, also puts interviewees in the role of expert: they know something of value to someone else. This places the interviewer in the position of a novice, an apprentice. The "expert" is being asked to share his or her expertise with the novice. I have often observed a marked change in animation and enthusiasm on the part of interviewees when role-playing kinds of questions have been used.

Another variation of the role-playing format is a question whereby the interviewer dissociates himself or herself somewhat from asking the question. This has the effect of making the question less personal and probing. Consider these two questions: "How do you sneak dope into the prison?" "Suppose someone you trusted asked you how to sneak dope into the prison. What would you tell him?"

The first question comes across like an interrogation or inquisition. The second question is softened and has more of an informal and informative tone. Despite the fact that the content is the same for both questions, the second question has the psychological effect on the interviewee of permitting the interviewer to be dissociated from the question. While this technique can be overused and can sound like a phony or trick question if the intonation with which it is asked is hesitating or implies awkwardness, used sparingly and with subtlety the role-playing format can ease the asking of difficult questions and can permit the interviewer to obtain high quality information.

Simulation questions provide a context in a different way. The simulation question asks the person being interviewed to imagine himself or herself in some situation about which the interviewer is interested.

> Suppose I was present with you during one of your group therapy sessions. What would I see happening? What would be going on? Describe to me what one of those sessions is like.
>
> or
>
> Suppose I was in your classroom at the beginning of the day when the students first come in. What would I see happening as the students came in? Take me there. Take me to your classroom and let me see what happens during the first ten to fifteen minutes as the students arrive, what you'd be doing, what they'd be doing, what those first fifteen minutes are like.

In effect, these questions ask the interviewer to become an observer. The observer is asked to simulate for the interviewer some situation that has been experienced. In most cases, a response to this question will require the interviewee to visualize the situation to be described. When the interviewee is able to fully move into and experience the simulated situation through a visualization, the interviewer may observe that persons being interviewed take on an abstracted expression. As the purpose of the question is to achieve that abstraction, the interviewer should not try to bring respondents back, but rather encourage them to describe what is happening in the simulation. I frequently find that the richest and most detailed descriptions come from a series of questions that ask a respondent to re-experience and/or simulate some aspect of a program.

PREFATORY STATEMENTS AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

The purpose of prefatory statements is to let the person being interviewed know what is going to be asked before it is asked. This can serve two functions. First, it alerts the interviewee to the nature

of the question that is coming; it directs their awareness; and it focuses their attention. Second, an introductory announcement about subject matter about to be broached gives the person being interviewed a few seconds to organize his or her thoughts before the question is actually asked. Such questions can help the flow of the interview and reduce the amount of time taken up in what is sometimes an awkward silence while the interviewee is reflecting on or remembering the information necessary to answer a question. There are several different formats that can be used as prefaces to asking specific questions.

The *transition format* announces that one section of the interview has been completed and the new section is about to begin. The transition format tells the respondent that closure has been reached on one topic and a new topic is about to be introduced.

> We've been talking about the goals and objectives of the program. Now I'd like to ask you some questions about actual program activities. What are the major activities offered to clients in this program?
>
> or
>
> We've been talking about your personal experiences with this program. Now I'd like to ask you some questions concerning your opinions about the program. First, I'd like to ask you to think about the program's strengths and weaknesses. Let's begin with strengths. What would you say are the basic strengths of this program, from your point of view?

The transition format essentially says to the interviewee: "This is where we've been . . . and this is where we're going . . . " Questions prefaced by transition format help maintain the smooth flow of an interview.

An alternative form of transition is the *summarizing transition format*. This format brings closure to a section of the interview by repeating to the person interviewed what it is they have said in that section of the interview and then asking them if they have anything to add or to clarify before moving on to a new subject. The summarizing transition format announces to the respondent that the interviewer is ready to bring closure to one section of the interview and to begin a new section. However, first the interviewer should make sure that he or she is not cutting off any final comments from the person being interviewed.

> Before we move on to the next set of questions, let me make sure I've got everything you said about the program goals and objectives. You

said the program had five goals. First, . . . Second, . . . Before I ask you some questions about program activities related to these goals, are there any additional goals or objectives that I haven't got down here?

The summarizing transition format lets the person being interviewed know that the interviewer is listening and is recording what is being said. The summary allows the interviewee to make clarifications, corrections, and additions in order to bring closure to one section of the interview. This format also announces that it is time to move on to other questions and lets the respondent know what is coming up next.

The *direct announcement format* is a simple statement telling the interviewee what will be asked next. A preface to a question that announces its content softens the harshness or abruptness of the question itself. Direct prefatory statements can make an interview more conversational and easy-flowing, less like an interrogation. The transcriptions below show two interview sequences, one without prefatory statements and the other with prefatory statements.

DEMONSTRATION OF THE DIRECT ANNOUNCEMENT FORMAT

Interview without direct preface	*Interview with direct preface*
A: . . . so I guess I'd say that's what the program has done for me.	A: . . . so I guess I'd say that's what the program has done for me.
Q: How have you changed as a result of the program?	Q: Let me ask you to think now about what changes you see in yourself because of this program. (pause) How have you changed since you began the program?

There are times when the flow of the interview makes it imperative that direct, follow-up questions be asked without preface or announcement. There are other times when the flow of the interview is made more conversational by the insertion of direct announcements about the content of a question before it is asked. All of these formats must be used selectively and strategically. Constant repetition of the same format or mechanical use of a particular format will make the interview more, rather than less, awkward.

The *attention-getting preface* makes a comment about the question that is going to be asked. The comment may concern the importance of the question, the difficulty of the question, the openness of the question, or any other characteristic of the question the interviewer thinks should be called to the attention of the respondent. Several such prefaces are illustrated in the following questions.

This next question is particularly important to the program staff. How do you feel the program could be improved?

or

This next question is purposefully vague so that you can respond in any way that makes sense to you. What difference has this program made to the larger community?

or

This next question may be particularly difficult to answer with certainty, but I'd like to get your thoughts on it. In thinking about how you've changed during the last year, how much has this program caused those changes compared to other things that were happening in your life at this time?

or

This next question is aimed directly at getting *your* perspective. What's it like to be a client in this program?

or

As you will recognize, this next question has been particularly controversial. What kind of staff are needed to run a program like this?

The common element in each of these examples is that some prefatory comment is made about the question to alert the interviewee to the nature of the question. The attention-getting format tells the person being interviewed that the question about to be asked has some unique quality that makes it particularly worthy of being answered.

Making statements about the questions being asked is a way for the interviewer to engage in some conversation during the interview without commenting on the answers being provided by the interviewee. Thus, the interviewer is given something to say that goes beyond a pure interrogation function, but what is said concerns the questions and not the respondent's answers. In this fashion the interview can be made more interesting, more conversational, and interactive.

PROBES AND FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS

Probes are used to deepen the response to a question, to increase the richness of the data being obtained, and to give cues to the interviewee about the level of response that is desired. The word "probe" itself is usually best avoided in interviews. The expression, "Let me probe that further" can sound as if the interviewer is about to perform surgery on the respondent or conducting an investigation of something illicit or illegal. Quite simply, a probe is an interview tool used to go deeper into the interview responses. As such, probes should be conversational, offered in a natural style and voice, and used to follow up initial responses.

One natural set of conversational probes consists of *detail-oriented* questions. These are the basic questions that fill in the blank spaces of a response.

> When did that happen?
>
> Who else was involved?
>
> Where were you during that time?
>
> What was your involvement in that situation?
>
> How did that come about?
>
> Where did that happen?

These *detail-oriented* probes are the basic "who," "where," "what," "when," and "how" questions that are used to obtain a complete and detailed picture of some activity or experience. There are times, as in the probes suggested above, when *particular* details are elicited through follow-up questions.

At other times an interviewer may want to keep a respondent talking more about a subject. In such cases *elaboration* probes are used. Elaboration probes encompass a variety of ways to cue the person being interviewed that they should keep talking. The best cue an interviewer can use to encourage continued talking is to gently nod his or her head. (Overenthusiastic head-nodding will often be perceived as endorsment of the content of a response or as wanting the person to stop talking because the interviewer has already understood what the respondent has to say. Gentle and strategic head-nodding is aimed at communicating that the interviewer is listening and wants to go on listening.) The verbal corollary of head-nodding is the quiet "uh-huh." A combination may be necessary; when the respondent seems about to stop talking and the interviewer would like to encourage him or her to continue, a combined "uh-huh" with a gentle rocking of the whole upper body can communicate interest in having the interviewee elaborate.

Elaboration probes also have direct verbal forms. These consist of any statement or request that the person keep talking.

> Would you elaborate on that?
>
> Could you say some more about that?
>
> That's helpful. I'd appreciate it if you could give me more detail.
>
> I'm beginning to get the picture. (The implication is that I don't have the full picture yet, so please keep talking.)
>
> I think I'm beginning to understand.
>
> Let me make sure I've got down exactly what you said, then I'd like to ask you to say some more on that.

There are times when the interviewee should be encouraged to say more because the interviewer has not fully understood an answer. If something has been said that is ambiguous or an apparent non-sequitur, a *clarification probe* may be useful. Clarification probes tell the interviewee that the interviewer needs more information, a restatement of the answer, or more context.

> You said the program is a "success." What do you mean by "success?"
>
> I'm not sure I understand what you meant by that. Could you elaborate, please.
>
> I want to make sure I understand what you're saying. I think it would help me if you could say some more about that.
>
> What you're saying now is very important and I want to make sure that I get it in exactly the way you mean it. Would you repeat what you said so that I can get your exact thoughts?
>
> I'm not sure I understand exactly what you mean.
>
> I didn't quite catch your full meaning. Would you run that by me again?

A clarification probe should be used naturally and gently. It is best for the interviewer to convey the notion that the failure to understand is the fault of the interviewer and not a failure by the person being interviewed. The interviewer does not want to make the respondent feel inarticulate, stupid, or muddled. After one or two attempts at achieving clarification, it is sometimes best to leave the particular topic that is causing the confusion and move on to other questions, perhaps returning to that topic at a later point.

A major characteristic that separates probes from general interview questions is that probes are seldom written out in an interview. Probing is a skill that comes from knowing what to look for in the interview, listening carefully to what is said and what is not said, and being sensitive to the feedback needs of the person being interviewed. Probes are always a combination of verbal and nonverbal cues. Silence at the end of a response can indicate as effectively as anything else that the interviewer would like the person to continue. Probes are used to communicate with the interviewee about what the interviewer wants. More detail? Elaboration? Clarity? Probes, then, provide guidance to the person interviewed. They also provide the interviewer with a way to maintain control of the flow of the interview, a subject discussed in more detail in a later section.

SUPPORT AND RECOGNITION RESPONSES

Effective interviewing should cause both the interviewer and the interviewee to feel that a two-way flow of communication is going on. Interviews should not be simply interrogations in which the interviewer intensively pursues a set of questions and the respondent provides the answers. The interviewer has a responsibility to communicate clearly what information is desired, why that information is important, and to let the interviewee know how the interview is progressing.

Previous sections have emphasized the wording of questions so that interview questions are clear and detailed responses can be obtained from persons being interviewed. The purpose of the overall interview and the relationship of particular questions to that overall purpose are important pieces of information that go beyond simply asking questions. While the reason for asking a particular question may be absolutely clear to the interviewer, such purposes are not always clear to the respondent. The interviewer communicates respect for persons being interviewed by giving them the courtesy of explaining why questions are being asked. Understanding the purpose of the interview will increase the motivation of the interviewee to respond openly and in detail.

The overall purpose of the interview is conveyed in an opening statement. The most important elements to communicate in this opening statement, at least when interviewing is being done as part of a program evaluation process, are all of the following:

586

What will be asked in the interview?

Who is the information for?

How will the information be handled, including confidentiality?

What is the purpose of collecting the information?

How will it be used?

The interviewer has an obligation to provide this information at the beginning of the interview. Providing such information does *not*, however, require making long and elaborate speaches. Statements of purpose should be simple, straightforward, and understandable. Long statements about what the interview is going to be like and how it will be used, when such statements are made at the beginning of the interview, are usually either boring or anxiety-producing. The interviewee will find out soon enough what kinds of questions are going to be asked, and, from the nature of the questions, will make judgments about the likely use of such information. The basic message to be communicated in the opening statement is (1) that the information is important, (2) the reasons for that importance, and (3) the willingness of the interviewer to explain the purpose of the interview out of respect for the interviewee.

> The purpose of this interview is to get information that will help the program staff improve the program. As someone who has been in the program, you are in a unique position to describe what the program does and how it affects people. And that's what the interview is about: your experiences with the program and your thoughts about your experiences. The answers from all the people we interview, and we're interviewing about 25 people, will be combined into an overview before the program staff see what people said. Nothing you say will ever be identified with you personally. As we go through the interview, if you have any questions about why I'm asking some particular things, please feel free to ask. Or if there's anything you don't want to answer, just say so. The purpose of the interview is to get your insights about how the program operates and how it affects people. Any questions about that before we begin?

While this overview gives a basic notion about the purpose of the interview, it will still be appropriate and important to explain the purpose of particular questions at strategic points throughout the interview. Explaining the purpose of particular questions is a form of prefatory statement that tells the respondent why the interviewer is asking what he or she is about to ask.

587

> This next set of questions is about your own personal background and experiences. The purpose of these background questions is to help us find out how different kinds of people have experienced the program.
>
> or
>
> This next set of questions is about the program staff. The staff are particularly interested in your answers to these questions because they want to know how they come across to participants in the program so that they can become more effective in working with people. The staff has told us that they don't really get a chance to find out how people in the program feel about what they do, so this part of the interview is aimed at giving them some direct feedback.

The other part of this process of maintaining communication with the interviewee is giving out clues about how the interview is going. One of the most common mistakes in interviewing is a failure to provide reinforcement and feedback to the person being interviewed about how the interviewer perceives the interview is progressing. This involves letting the interviewee know from time to time that the purpose of the interview is being fulfilled. Words of thanks, support, and praise will help make the interviewee feel that the interview process is worthwhile.

> Your comments about program weaknesses are particularly helpful, I think, because identification of the kind of weaknesses you describe can really help in making changes in the program.
>
> or
>
> It's really helpful to get such a clear statement of what the program is like. That's just the kind of thing we're trying to get at.
>
> or
>
> We are about half-way through the interview now and I think a lot of really important things are coming out of what you're saying.
>
> or
>
> I really appreciate your willingness to express your feelings about that. That's really helpful.

The interviewer can often get clues about what kind of reinforcement is appropriate by watching the interviewee. When the verbal and nonverbal behaviors of the person indicate that he or she is really struggling with the question, going deep within himself or herself trying to form an answer, after his or her response it is entirely appropriate for the interviewer to say: "I know that was a difficult

question and I really appreciate your working with it because what you said came out very clearly." At other times the interviewer may perceive that only a surface or shallow answer has been provided. It may then be appropriate to say something like the following: "I don't want to let that question go by without asking you to think about it just a little bit more, because I feel you've really given some important detail and insights on the other questions and I'd like to get more of your reflections about this question."

The point here is that the interview is an interaction. The interviewer provides stimuli to generate a reaction. *That reaction from the interviewee, however, is also a stimulus to which the interviewer responds.* The interviewer must maintain awareness of how the interview is flowing, how the interviewee is reacting to questions, and what kinds of feedback are appropriate and helpful to maintain the flow of communication.

MAINTAINING CONTROL OF THE INTERVIEW

Time is precious in an interview. Long-winded responses, irrelevant remarks, and digressions in the interview will reduce the amount of time available to focus on critical questions. The interviewer must maintain control of the interview; that control is maintained by (1) knowing what one wants to find out, (2) asking the right questions to get the desired answers, and (3) giving appropriate verbal and nonverbal feedback to the person being interviewed.

Knowing what one wants to find out in the interview means that one is able to recognize and distinguish appropriate from inappropriate responses. It is not enough just to ask the right questions. The interviewer must listen carefully to make sure that the responses received provide answers to the questions that are asked. Consider the following exchange:

> Q: What happens in a typical interviewer training session that you lead?
>
> A: I try to be sensitive to where each person is at with interviewing. I try to make sure that I am able to touch base with each person so that I can find out how they're responding to their training, to get some notion of how each person is doing.
>
> Q: How do you begin a session, a training session?
>
> A: I believe it's important to begin with enthusiasm, to generate some excitement about interviewing.

In this interaction the interviewer is asking descriptive, behavioral questions. The responses, however, are about beliefs and hopes—they have not actually described what happens. Rather, the responses describe what the interviewee thinks *ought* to happen. Since the interviewer is waiting for behavioral data, it is necessary to first recognize that the responses are not providing the kind of data desired, and then to ask appropriate questions that will lead to behavioral responses.

> INTERVIEWER: Okay, you try to establish contact with each person, and you try to generate enthusiasm at the beginning. What I'd like you to do now is to actually take me to a training session. Describe for me what the room looks like, where the trainees are, where you are, and tell me what I would see and hear if I were right there in that session. What would I see you doing? What would I hear you saying? What would I see the trainees doing? What would I hear the trainees saying? Take me into a session so that I can actually experience it.

It is the interviewer's responsibility to work with the person being interviewed to facilitate the desired responses. At times it may be necessary to give more direct feedback about the kind of information that has been received and the kind of information that is desired.

> INTERVIEWER: I think I understand now what it is you try to do during an interview training session. You've explained to me what you hope to accomplish and stimulate, now I'd like you to describe to me what you actually do, not what you expect, but what I would actually see happening if I was present at the session.

It is not enough to simply ask the right initial question. Neither is it enough to have a well-planned interview with good, on-target basic questions. The interviewer must listen carefully to the kinds of responses supplied to make sure that the interview is working according to plan. I've seen many well-written interviews that have resulted in largely useless data because the interviewer did not listen carefully to the responses being received and did not recognize that the responses were not providing the kind of information needed. The first responsibility, then, in maintaining control of the interview is knowing what kind of data one is looking for and directing the interview in order to collect that data.

Giving appropriate feedback to the interviewee is essential in pacing an interview and maintaining control of the interview process. Head-nodding, taking notes, "uh-huhs," and silent probes (remaining quiet when a person stops talking to let them know the interviewer is waiting for more) are all signals that the person being interviewed is on the right track. On the other hand, it is often necessary to stop a highly verbal respondent who gets off the track. The first step in stopping the long-winded respondent is to cease giving the usual cues mentioned above that encourage talking: stop nodding the head; interject a new question as soon as the respondent pauses for breath; stop taking notes, or call attention to the fact that one has stopped taking notes by flipping the page of the writing pad and sitting back, waiting. When these nonverbal cues do not work, it becomes necessary to interrupt the long-winded respondent.

> Let me stop you here, for a moment. I want to make sure I fully understand something you said earlier. (Then ask the question aimed at getting the response more targeted.)
>
> or
>
> Let me ask you to stop for a moment because some of what you're talking about now I want to get later in the interview. First I need to find out from you . . .

Interviewers are sometimes concerned that it is impolite to interrupt an interviewee. It certainly can be awkward, but when done with respect and sensitivity, the interruption can actually help the interview. It is both patronizing and disrespectful to let the respondent run on when no attention is being paid to what he or she is saying. It *is* respectful of both the person being interviewed, and the interviewer, to make good use of the short time available to talk. It is the responsibility of the interviewer to help the interviewee understand what kind of information is being requested and to establish a framework and context that makes it possible to collect the right kind of information.

Asking focused questions in an appropriate style to get relevant answers that are useful in understanding the interviewee's world is what interviewing is all about. Yet, maintaining focus on information that is useful, relevant, and appropriate requires concentration, practice, and *the ability to separate that which is foolish from that which is important.* In his classic *Don Quixote,* Cervantes describes a scene in which Sancho is rebuked by Don Quixote for trying to impress his cousin by repeating deeply philosophical questions and answers that he has heard from other people, all the while trying to make the cousin think that these philosophical discourses were Sancho's own insights.

> "That question and answer," said Don Quixote, "are not yours, Sancho. You have heard them from someone else."
>
> "Whist, sir," answered Sancho, "if I start questioning and answering, I shan't be done til tomorrow morning. Yes, for if it's just a matter of asking idiotic questions and giving silly replies, I needn't go begging help from the neighbors."
>
> "You have said more than you know, Sancho," said Don Quixote, "for there are some people who tire themselves out learning and proving things that, once learned and proved, don't matter a straw as far as the mind or memory is concerned" [Cervantes, 1964:682].

Regardless of which interview strategy is used—the informal conversational interviews, the interview guide approach, or standardized open-ended interviews—the wording of questions will affect the nature and quality of responses received. Constant attention to the purpose of specific interviews and to the ways in which questions can be worded to achieve that evaluation purpose will reduce the extent to which, in Cervantes' words, evaluators "tire themselves out learning and proving things that, once learned and proved, don't matter a straw as far as the mind or memory is concerned."

RECORDING THE DATA

The primary data of in-depth, open-ended interviews are quotations. What people say, what they think, how they feel, what they've done, and what they know—these are the things one can learn from talking to people in interviews. The purpose of qualitative evaluation methods is to understand the perspective and the experience of people associated with a program. But no matter what style of interviewing is used, and no matter how careful one words interview questions, it all comes to naught if the interviewer fails to capture the actual words of the person being interviewed. The raw data of interviews are the actual quotations spoken by interviewees. There is not substitute for these data.

Data interpretation and analysis involve making sense out of what people have said, looking for patterns, putting together what is said in one place with what is said in another place, and integrating what different people have said.

These are processes that belong primarily to the analysis phase of qualitative evaluations *after* the data are collected. During the interviewing process itself—that is, during the data collection phase of evaluation—the purpose of each interview is to record as fully and fairly as possible that particular interviewee's perspective. Some method for recording the verbatim responses of people being interviewed is essential.

TAPE RECORDING INTERVIEWS

A tape recorder is part of the indispensable equipment of evaluators using qualitative methods. Tape recorders do not "tune out" conversations, change what has been said because of interpretation (either conscious or unconscious), or record words more slowly than they are spoken. (Tape recorders, do, however, break down and malfunction—a point addressed in the next section.) In addition to increasing the accuracy of data collection, the use of a tape recorder permits the interviewer to be more attentive to the interviewee. The interviewer who tries to write down every word will have a difficult time responding appropriately to interviewee needs and cues. The pace of the interview can become decidedly nonconversational. In brief, the interactive nature of in-depth interviewing is seriously affected by the attempt to take verbatim notes during the interview.

The major justification for using a tape recorder should be made clear to the interviewee.

> I'd like to tape record what you have to say so that I don't miss any of it. I don't want to take the chance of relying on my notes and thereby miss something that you say or inadvertently change your words somehow. So, if you don't mind, I'd very much like to use the recorder. If at any time during the interview you would like to turn the tape recorder off, all you have to do is press this button on the microphone, and the recorder will stop.

The use of the tape recorder does not eliminate the need for taking notes. Notes can serve at least two purposes: (1) notes taken during the interview can help the interviewer formulate new questions as the interview moves along, particularly where it may be appropriate to check out something that was said earlier; and (2) taking notes about what is said will facilitate later analysis, including locating important quotations from the tape itself. In addition, note-taking is one of the nonverbal behaviors that helps pace the interview. Note-taking becomes a kind of nonverbal feedback to the interviewee about when something sufficiently important to have written down has been said; conversely, the failure to take notes will often indicate to the respondent that nothing of particular importance is being said.

It should be obvious from my earlier remarks about the nature of the interactions that take place in an interview that the use of a tape recorder does *not* mean that the interviewer can become less attentive to the respondent. This is important regardless of whether a standardized open-ended interview format is used or the more informal conversational approach is the basis for data collection.

> One's full attention must be focused upon the interviewee. One must be thinking about probing for further explication or clarification of what he is now saying; formulating probes linking up current talk with what he has already said; thinking ahead to putting in a *new* question that has now arisen and was not taken account of in the standing guide (plus making a note at that moment so one will not forget the question); and attending to the interviewee in a manner that communicates to him that you are indeed listening. All of this is hard enough simply in itself. Add to that the problem of writing it down—even if one takes shorthand in an expert fashion—and one can see that the process of note-taking in the interview decreases one's interviewing capacity. Therefore, if conceivably possible, *tape record;* then one can interview [Lofland, 1971:89].

TRANSCRIBING INTERVIEWS

Since the raw data of interviews are quotations, the most desirable data to obtain would be full transcription of interviews. Unfortunately, transcribing is enormously expensive. At the Minnesota Center for Social Research, we found that the ratio of transcribing time to tape time was typically 4:1—on the average, it took four hours to transcribe one hour of tape. Despite these costs, full transcriptions are the most desirable data to obtain. Transcripts can be enormously useful in data analysis and later in replications or independent analyses of the data.

Where resources are not sufficient to permit full transcriptions, the interviewer can work back and forth between interview notes and sections of the tape; only those quotations that are particularly important to take from the tape for data analysis and reporting need be transcribed. In either case, whether the full tape is transcribed or only parts of the tape are used to preserve exact quotations, it is critical that the tape recording be of high technical quality. Few things are more distressing in collecting qualitative data than finding that the tape is blank or that background noise is so severe that the tape is virtually worthless. In the first large-scale interviewing project with which I was involved, *nearly twenty percent of the data was lost because of poor-quality recordings.* Transcribers are particularly sensitive to the quality of tapes, and costs vary directly with tape recording quality. Because of the continuing problem of poor-quality recording, transcribers at the Minnesota Center for Social Research, under the supervision of Neala Schleuning, put together the following suggestions for interviewers using tape recorders.

How to Keep Transcribers Sane

I. *Equipment*
   a. Use electrical outlet and outside mike whenever possible.
   b. If you use batteries check them.
   c. Recorder should be clean and in good condition—check *before* going to an interview.
   d. Take along extra tape cassettes.

II. *Before Interview*
   a. Choose a place that's quiet and free from interruptions.
   b. Place microphone close to respondent, then speak loud enough so we hear what you're saying; most important, we want to hear the answer.
   c. Set recorder on stable surface.
   d. *Test the recording system.*

III. *During Interview*
   a. Speak clearly and not too fast—respondent is likely to do the same.
   b. Ask respondent to speak clearly.
   c. *Make test with respondent:* Then rewind and listen so respondent can hear whether she/he is speaking distinctly; *if not,* say, "The recorder does not seem to be picking up well. Could you speak up a little?" Whether the problem is mechanical or personal, *correct it before continuing.*
   d. Don't rustle papers, cups, bottles, etc., near the mike.
   e. Turn off recorder during irrelevant discussion.
   f. Watch for tape breakage and tangling.
   g. Follow all cassette recorder instructions.
   h. Repeat test if tape change is necessary.
   i. At end of interview, say "This is the end of interview with ."

IV. *After Interview*
   a. Listen to tape—make notes and erase irrelevant discussion (make note of this for transcribers); list proper names and unfamiliar terminology.
   b. Label tapes and return them to appropriate containers.
   c. Keep tapes and recorder in good condition—do not touch tape or expose it to extreme temperatures.

NOTE-TAKING DURING INTERVIEWS

When a tape recorder is being used during the interview, notes will consist primarily of key phrases, lists of major points made by the respondent, and key terms or words shown in quotation marks that capture the interviewee's own language. While most interviewers will not know how to take technical shorthand, it is enormously useful to develop some system of abbreviations and informal shorthand to facilitate note-taking. Some important conventions along this line include: (1) use quotation marks during note-taking only to indicate full and actual quotations; (2) develop some mechanism for indicating interpretations, thoughts, or ideas that may come to mind during the interview—for example, the use of brackets to set off one's own ideas from those of the interviewee; and (3) keep track of questions asked and answers received.

When it is not possible to use a tape recorder because of some sensitive situation, interviewee request, or tape recorder malfunction, note-taking must become much more thorough and comprehensive. Again, it is critical to gather actual quotations as often as possible; when the interviewee has said something that seems particularly important or insightful, it may be necessary to say: "I'm afraid I need to stop you at this point so that I can get down exactly what you said, because I don't want to lose that particular quote. Let me read back to you what I have and make sure it is exactly what you said."

With practice and training, an interviewer can learn to expand notes into more comprehensive detail of what was said in the interview. To do this with accuracy and reliability requires expanding the notes taken during the interview ***immediately following the interview.*** It is necessary to go through the entire interview afterwards and make extensive notes and comments, elaborating the phrases and outline that was obtained during the interview. This must be done while the responses are still fresh in the interviewer's mind and before other conversations intervene to cloud the memory. This elaboration will consist largely of summaries of responses to each question and integrating actual quotations obtained during the interview into those summaries. On occasion this process of immediately elaborating the interview will reveal areas of ambiguity or uncertainty where the interviewer is not really sure what the person said or meant. As soom as these areas of vagueness are found, the interviewer should check back with the respondent to clarify the meaning. This can often be done over the telephone. In my experience people who are interviewed appreciate such a follow-up because it indicates the seriousness with which the interviewer is taking their responses. Guessing the meaning of a response is absolutely unacceptable; if there is no way of following up the comments with the

respondent, then those areas of vagueness and uncertainty must simply become missing data.

AFTER THE INTERVIEW

The period after the interview is critical to the rigor and validity of qualitative measurement whether the methods used involved interviewing or observation. The period following an interview is a time for guaranteeing the quality of the data. The first thing to be done after an interview that has been recorded on tape is to check the tape to make sure it was functioning properly. If for some reason a malfunction occurred, the interviewer should immediately make extensive notes of everything that he or she can remember. Even if the tape functioned properly, the interviewer should go over the interview notes to make certain that what is written makes sense, to uncover areas of ambiguity or uncertainty, and to review the quality of information received from the respondent. Did the interviewer find out what he or she really wanted to find out in the interview? If not, what was the problem? Poorly worded questions? Wrong topics? Poor rapport?

At this point immediately following the interview observations should be written down about the interview itself. The interviewer should note where the interview occurred, who was present, observations about how the interviewee reacted to the interview, observations about the interviewer's own role in the interview, and any additional information that would help establish a context for interpreting and making sense out of the interview. If a tape recorder is available, the interviewer may simply want to talk into the microphone. In any case, this period after the interview is a critical time of reflection and elaboration. ***It is a time of quality control to guarantee that the data obtained will be useful, reliable, and valid.***

This period after an interview or observation requires great discipline. Interviewing can be exhausting, and it is easy to forego this time of reflection and elaboration, put it off, or neglect it altogether. To do so is to seriously undermine the rigor of qualitative methods. Interviews and observations should be scheduled so that sufficient time is available for data clarification, elaboration, and evaluation. As a rule of thumb I expect to spend at least as much time after the interview going over notes and making observations as I spent in the interview itself. This is also the beginning of analysis because while the situation and data are fresh, insights can occur that might otherwise have been lost. Thus, ideas and interpretations that emerge following an interview or observation should be written down and clearly marked as such.

PERSONAL REFLECTIONS ON INTERVIEWING

This chapter has attempted to suggest some ideas about how to go about doing interviews. There is no single right way of interviewing, no single correct format that is appropriate for all situations, and no single way of wording questions that will always work. The particular evaluation situation, the needs of the interviewee, and the personal style of the interviewer all come together to create a unique situation for each interview. Therein lies the challenge of in-depth interviewing.

I find that interviewing people can be invigorating and stimulating. It is a chance for a short period of time to try to get inside another person's world. If participant observation means "walk a mile in my shoes," then in-depth interviewing means "walk a mile in my head." A good interview lays open thoughts, feelings, knowledge, and experiences not only to the interviewer, but also to the interviewee. The process of being taken through a directed, reflective process affects the persons being interviewed and leaves them knowing things about themselves that they didn't know—or at least were not aware of—before the interview.

I'm personally convinced that to be a good interviewer you must like doing it. This means taking an interest in what people have to say. You must yourself believe that the thoughts and experiences of the people being interviewed are worth knowing. In short, you must have the utmost respect for these persons who are willing to share with you some of their time to help you understand their world. There is a Sufi story that describes what happens when the interviewer loses this basic sensitivity to and respect for the person being interviewed.

An Interview with the King of the Monkeys

> A man once spent years of his life learning the language of monkeys so that he could personally interview the king of monkeys. Having completed his studies he made careful inquiries to find the king of the monkeys. In the course of searching for the king of the monkeys he had to talk to a number of monkey underlings. He found that the monkeys he spoke to were generally, to his mind, neither very interesting nor very clever. He began to doubt whether he could learn very much from the king of the monkeys either.
>
> Finally he located the king of the monkeys and arranged for an interview. Because of his doubts, however, he decided to begin with a few basic questions before moving on to the deeper questions in which he was really interested. "What is a tree?" he asked.

> "It is what it is," said the king of the monkeys. "We use trees to swing on."
>
> "And what is the purpose of the banana?"
>
> "They are to eat."
>
> "How do animals find pleasure?"
>
> "By doing things they enjoy."
>
> At this point the man decided that the monkey's responses were rather shallow and uninteresting, and went on his way, severely disappointed. Soon afterwards an owl flew into the tree next to the king of the monkeys. "What was that man doing here?" the owl asked.
>
> "Oh, he was only another silly human," said the king of the monkeys. "He asked a bunch of simple and meaningless questions so I gave him simple and meaningless answers."

There have been a number of scholarly studies of the dynamics of interviewing, different types of respondents, and the problems that can emerge in attempting to obtain valid and reliable data from interviewees (Richardson et al., 1965; Hyman, 1954). Certainly there are uncooperative respondents, people who are paranoid, respondents who seem overly sensitive and easily embarrassed, aggressive and hostile interviewees, timid people, and the endlessly verbose who go on at great length about very little. When an interview is going badly it is easy to call forth one of these stereotypes to explain how the interviewee is ruining the interview. Such blaming of the victim (the interviewee), however, does little to improve the quality of the data. Nor does it improve interviewing skills.

A different approach is to believe that there is a way to unlock the internal perspectives of every interviewee. It is the task and responsibility of the interviewer to find which interviewing style and which question format will work with a particular respondent. It is the responsibility of the interviewer to establish an interview climate that facilitates open responses. When the interview goes badly, it is the responsibility of the interviewer, not the fault of the interviewee.

Evaluation Interviewing Beatitudes

Ask.
Listen and record.
Ask.
Listen and record.
Ask.
Listen and record.

It is a privilege to listen. To ask is a grave responsibility. Evaluators, listen. Do you not know that you shall be evaluated by your questions?

To ask is to seek entry into another's world. Therefore, ask respectfully and with sincerity. Do not waste questions on trivia and tricks, for the value of the answering gift you receive will be a reflection of the value of your question.

Blessed are the skilled questioners, for they shall be given mountains of words to ascend.

Blessed are the wise questioners, for they shall unlock hidden corridors of knowledge.

Blessed are the listening questioners, for they shall gain perspective.

From *Halcolm's Evaluation Beatitudes*

Appendix 7.1
Sample of a Detailed Interview Guide*
GUIDELINES FOR THE DESCRIPTIVE INTERVIEW

ETS COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH PROJECT ON READING—SEPTEMBER, 1978

Spirit of the Guidelines. This set of guidelines is not a checklist. If it were, it would defeat the basic strategy of the study—which is to make full use of the observations and thought of the teacher and other team members. The guidelines are intended as an index of topics that should be discussed over the course of the year.

Organization and Use of the Guidelines. The guidelines are divided into three broad categories of topics for discussion:

I. Salient Observations
II. General Behavior Topics
III. Language and Reading Topics

This roughly corresponds to the organization of each interview, though not necessarily in the sequence given above. That is, each interview will begin with the teacher's salient impressions derived from observation—what the teacher thinks is important to report about the child. Depending on what those impressions are, the interviewer will pick up on related topics within the guidelines. For example, if the teacher begins the interview with a description of some interesting work the child has done, the interviewer might pick up his/her end of the conversation by asking questions about the child's method of work (Topic E, p. 4). After exploring other topics on page 4 that seem pertinent to the sense of the discussion, the interviewer would then move on to talk about some topics in category III. If, on the other hand, the teacher's salient impressions were mainly concerned with reading, the interviewer would move directly to related topics in category III and eventually wind backwards into category II topics.

Teachers should strive to be as descriptive as possible throughout the interview, and interviewers should strive to facilitate description by asking for concrete instances and examples.

Coverage of Topics in the Guidelines. No one interview could possibly aspire to cover all topics in the guidelines. Throughout the course of five interviews over the year, however, we will be able to obtain information relevant to each topic.

Some topics (e.g., Physical/Gestural Characteristics) may only be discussed once, assuming the child does not change. Other topics (e.g., Activities and Reading Competence) will undoubtedly be touched on at every interview to update the child's documentary record. Again, it is the judgment of teacher and interviewer alike that will determine the most relevant topics of discussion for any given interview.

I. TEACHER'S SALIENT OBSERVATIONS ABOUT CHILD'S FUNCTIONING

Basically cover impressions gained through teacher's own observations of the children during the normal course of instruction.
Where appropriate include:
- comments about continuities/changes/fluctuations
- comments about child's work samples

Organization of the Day (first interview only)
- any changes in organization (subsequent interviews)

II. GENERAL BEHAVIOR TOPICS

A. PHYSICAL/GESTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

- typical posture, bearing
- pace of movement
- forcefulness/impact of physical presence
- gestural characteristics
- eye contact
- voice qualities (e.g., loud, soft, fluent, halting)
- voice tone/inflection

B. AFFECTIVE EXPRESSION

- characteristic disposition and how expressed
- how is anger expressed, controlled
- how is affection expressed
- general level of energy

C. RELATIONSHIPS

- how does child relate to (fit in with) whole class
- what social situations does child seek in work/play
- do other children seek out child
- relationship to adults
- does approach/interaction vary in different settings? at different times?

D. ACTIVITIES

- what does child do in classrooms when there is an opportunity to choose?
- breadth and depth of activities
- what are unusual activities for the child to engage in?
- what are things child has never engaged/attempted in classroom?

E. METHOD OF WORKING

- how does child organize self for work?
- how does child carry through on work?
- does child seek feedback about work? when? from whom?
- does child ask for help with work? when? from whom?
- does child use help that is offered? how?
- evidence that child "knows what he knows"—can gauge own capabilities
- how does child demonstrate capabilities?

F. SUMMARY OF PROGRESS IN SCHOOL-RELATED WORK (OTHER THAN READING)

- differential/even progress
- unusual accomplishments, activities
- unusual difficulties, blockings

(The remaining parts of the guide are omitted because of length.)

This example of the guide approach to interviewing makes it clear that a great deal of preparation, effort, and concentration is required of the interviewer in using the guide. The interviewer must be thoroughly familiar with the details of the outline so that the interview flows smoothly. After any one interview session the interviewer would compare the data actually obtained in the interview to the data desired as specified in the guide in order to begin planning for the next interview.

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*My thanks to Ann Bussis and Ted Chittenden of ETS for permission to include this guide.

APPENDIX 7.2
EXAMPLES OF STANDARDIZED OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEWS

The attached edited interviews were used in evaluation of an Outward Bound program for the disabled. Outward Bound is an organization that uses the wilderness as an experiential education medium. This particular program consisted of a ten-day experience in the Boundary Water Canoe Area of Minnesota. The group consisted of half able-bodied participants and half disabled participants including: paraplegics; persons with cerebral palsy, epilepsy, or other developmental disabilities; blind and deaf participants; and, on one occasion, a quadruplegic. The first interview was conducted at the beginning of the program; the second interview was used at the end of the ten-day experience; and the third interview took place six months later.

To save space, many of the probes and elaboration questions have been deleted and space for writing notes has been eliminated. The overall thrust and format of the interviews have, however, been retained.

PRE-COURSE INTERVIEW MINNESOTA OUTWARD BOUND SCHOOL COURSE FOR THE DISABLED

This interview is being conducted before the course as part of an evaluation process to help us plan future courses. You have received a consent form to sign, which indicates your consent to this interview. The interview will be recorded.

1. First, we'd be interested in knowing how you became involved in the course. How did you find out about it?
   a. What about the course appealed to you?
   b. What previous experiences have you had in the outdoors?
2. Some people have difficulty deciding to participate in an Outward Bound course, and others decide fairly easily. What kind of decision process did you go through in thinking about whether or not to participate?
   a. What particular things were you concerned about?
   b. What is happening in your life right now that stimulated your decision to take the course?
3. Now that you've made the decision to go on the course, how do you feel about it?
   a. How would you describe your feelings right now?
   b. What lingering doubts or concerns do you have?
4. What are your expectations about how the course will affect you personally?
   a. What changes in yourself do you hope will result from the experience?
   b. What do you hope to get out of the experience?
5. During the course you'll be with the same group of people for an extended period of time. What feelings do you have about being part of a group like that for nine full days?
   a. Based on your past experience with groups, how do you see yourself fitting into your group at Outward Bound?

FOR DISABLED

6. One of the things we're interested in understanding better as a result of these courses is the everyday experience of disabled people. Some of the things we are interested in are:
   a. How does your disability affect the types of activities you engage in?
   b. What are the things that you don't do that you wish you could do?
   c. How does your disability affect the kinds of people you associate with?

   (Clarification): Some people find that their disability means that they associate mainly with other disabled persons. Others find that their disability does not effect their contacts with people. What has your experience been along these lines?

   d. Sometimes people with disabilities find that their participation in groups is limited. What has been your experience in this regard?

FOR ABLE-BODIED

6. One of the things we're interested in understanding better as a result of these courses is feelings able-bodied people have about being with disabled folks. What kinds of experiences with disabled people have you had in the past?
   a. What do you personally feel you get out of working with disabled people?
   b. In what ways do you find yourself being different from your usual self when you're with disabled people?
   c. What role do you expect to play with disabled people on the Outward Bound course?

   (Clarification): Are there any particular things you expect to have to do?

   d. As you think about your participation in this course, what particular feelings do you have about being part of an outdoor course with disabled people?

7. About half of the participants on the course are disabled people and about half are people without disabilities. How would you expect your relationship with the disabled people to be different from your relationship with course participants who are not disabled?
8. We'd like to know something about how you typically face new situations. Some people kind of like to jump into new situations, whether or not some risk may be involved. Other people are more cautious about entering situations until they know more about them. Between these two, how would you describe yourself?
9. Okay, you've been very helpful. Are there other thoughts or feelings you'd like to share with us to help us understand how you're seeing the course right now. Anything at all you'd like to add?

POST-COURSE INTERVIEW

We're conducting this interview right at the end of your course at Minnesota Outward Bound. We hope this will help us better understand what you've experienced so that we can improve future courses. You have signed a form giving your consent for material from this interview to be used in a written evaluation of the course. This interview is being tape-recorded.

1. To what extent was the course what you expected it to be?
   a. How was it different from what you expected?
   b. To what extent did the things you were concerned about before the course come true?
      b-1. Which things came true?
      b-2. Which didn't come true?
2. How did the course affect you personally?
   a. What changes in yourself do you see or feel as a result of the course?
   b. What would you say you got out of the experience?

3. During the last nine days you've been with the same group of people constantly. What kind of feelings do you have about having been a part of the same group for that time?
   a. What feelings do you have about the group?
   b. What role do you feel you played in the group?
   c. How was your experience with this group different from your experiences with other groups?
   d. How did the group affect you?
   e. How did you affect the group?
   f. In what ways did you relate differently to the able-bodied and disabled people in your group?

4. What is it about the course that makes it have the effects it has? What happens on the course that makes a difference?
   a. What do you see as the important parts of the course, that make an Outward Bound course what it is?
   b. What was the high point of the course for you?
   c. What was the low point?

5. How do you think this course will affect you when you return to your home?
   a. Which of the things you experienced this week will carry over to your normal life?
   b. What plans do you have to change anything or do anything differently as a result of this course?

FOR DISABLED

6. We asked you before the course about your experience of being disabled. What are your feelings about what it's like to be disabled now?
   a. How did your disability affect the type of activities you engaged in on the course? (Clarification): What things didn't you do because of your disability?
   b. How was your participation in the group affected by your disability?

FOR ABLE-BODIED

6. We asked you before the course your feelings about being with disabled people. As a result of the experiences of the last nine days, how have your feelings about disabled people changed?
   a. How have your feelings *about yourself* in relation to disabled persons changed?
   b. What did you personally get out of being/working with disabled people on this course?
   c. What role did you play with the disabled people?
   d. How was this role different from the role you usually play with disabled people?

7. Before the course we asked you how you typically faced a variety of new situations. During the last nine days you have faced a variety of new situations. How would you describe yourself in terms of how you approached these new experiences?
   a. How was this different from the way you usually approach things?
   b. How do you think this experience will affect how you approach new situations in the future?

8. Suppose you were being asked by a government agency whether or not they should sponsor a course like this. What would you say?
   a. What arguments would you give to support your opinion?

9. Okay, you've been very helpful. We'd be very interested in any other feelings and thoughts you'd like to share with us to help us understand your experience of the course and how it affected you.

SIX MONTH FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW

This interview is being conducted about six months after your Outward Bound course to help us better understand what participants experience so that we can improve future courses.

1. Looking back on your Outward Bound experience, I'd like to ask you to begin by describing for me what you see as the main components of the course? What makes an Outward Bound course what it is?
   a. What do you remember as the highlight of the course for you?
   b. What was the low point?
2. How did the course affect you personally?
   a. What kinds of changes in yourself do you see or feel as a result of your participation in the course?
   b. What would you say you got out of the experience?
3. For nine days you were with the same group of people, how has your experience with the Outward Bound group affected your involvement with groups since then?

FOR DISABLED

(*Check previous responses before interview. *If person's attitude appears to have changed, ask if they perceive a change in attitude.)*

4. We asked you before the course to tell us what it's like to be disabled. What are your feelings about what it's like to be disabled now?

  a. How does your disability affect the types of activities you engage in?

  (Clarification): What are some of the things you don't do because you're disabled?

  b. How does your disability affect the kinds of people you associate with?

  (Clarification): Some people find that their disability means they associate mainly with other disabled persons. Other people with disabilities find that their disability in no way limits their contacts with people. What has been your experience?

  c. As a result of your participation in Outward Bound, how do you believe you've changed the way you handle your disability?

FOR ABLE-BODIED

4. We asked you before the course to tell us what it's like to work with the disabled. What are your feelings about what it's like to work with the disabled now?

  a. What do you personally feel you get out of working with disabled persons?

  b. In what ways do you find yourself being different from your usual self when you are with disabled people?

  c. As you think about your participation in the course, what particular feelings do you have about having been part of a course with disabled people?

5. About half of the people on the course were disabled people and about half were people without disabilities. To what extent did you find yourself acting differently with disabled people compared to the way you acted with able-bodied participants?

6. Before this course we asked you how you typically face new situations. For example, some people kind of like to jump into new situations even if some risks are involved. Other people are more cautious, etc. How would you describe yourself along these lines right now?

  a. To what extent, if at all, has the way you have approached new situations since the course been a result of your Outward Bound experience?

7. Have there been any ways in which the Outward Bound course affected you that we haven't discussed?

  (If Yes): How? Would you elaborate on that?

  a. What things that you experienced during that week carried over to your life since the course?

  b. What plans have you made, if any, to change anything or do anything differently as a result of the course?

8. Suppose you were being asked by a government agency whether or not they should support a course like this. What would you say?

  a. Who shouldn't take a course like this?

9. Okay, you've been very helpful. Any other thoughts or feelings you might share with us to help us understand your reactions to the course and how it affected you?

  a. Anything at all you'd like to add?

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Good Seeds Grow in Strong Cultures

JON SAPHIER
AND MATTHEW KING

Regardless of the focus of particular change efforts, schools need to nurture and build on the cultural norms that contribute to growth.

School improvement emerges from the confluence of four elements: the strengthening of teachers' skills, the systematic renovation of curriculum, the improvement of the organization, and the involvement of parents and citizens in responsible school-community partnerships. Underlying all four strands, however, is a school culture that either energizes or undermines them. Essentially, the culture of the school is the foundation for school improvement, a view summarized by Purkey and Smith (1982):

> We have argued that an academically effective school is distinguished by its culture: a structure, process, and climate of values and norms that channel staff and students in the direction of successful teaching and learning. . . .The logic of the cultural model is such that it points to increasing the organizational effectiveness of a school building and is neither grade-level nor curriculum specific (p. 68).

If certain norms of school culture are strong, improvements in instruction will be significant, continuous, and widespread; if these norms are weak, improvements will be at best infrequent, random, and slow. They will then depend on the unsupported energies of hungry self-starters and be confined to individual classrooms over short periods of time. The best workshops or ideas brought in from the outside will have little effect. In short, good seeds will not grow in weak cultures.

Giving shape and direction to a school's culture should be a clear, articulated vision of what the school stands for, a vision that embodies core values and purposes. Examples of core values might be community building, problem-solving skills, or effective communication. These value commitments vary from community to community; what is important for school leaders to know is the role of values as the fuel of school improvement. If core values are the fuel, then school culture is the engine.

The 12 Norms of School Culture

The cultural norms listed in Figure 1 can be supported where they exist and built where they do not by leaders and staff. The degree to which these norms

Figure 1. The Cultural Norms That Affect School Improvement.

1. Collegiality
2. Experimentation
3. High expectations
4. Trust and confidence
5. Tangible support
6. Reaching out to the knowledge bases
7. Appreciation and recognition
8. Caring, celebration, and humor
9. Involvement in decision making
10. Protection of what's important
11. Traditions
12. Honest, open communication

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are strong makes a huge difference in the ability of school improvement activities to have a lasting, or even any, effect. Building these norms depends equally on teachers' will and commitment since good leadership alone cannot make them strong; but without such leadership, culture cannot begin to grow or be expected to endure.

While we discuss these norms from the teacher's point of view, because teachers are culture shapers, it is important to bear in mind that there is a student culture as well. The same 12 norms apply to the culture of the school for students, but they are a direct reflection of what adults are capable of modeling among themselves.

Wherever these norms exist, they reside in teachers' and administrators' beliefs and show up in their actions. The following are hypothetical statements that represent what teachers believe and how they behave—not idle words in philosophy documents, but real actions rooted in beliefs of most of the faculty in a school with a strong culture.

1. Collegiality.

"In this school the professional staff help each other. We have similar challenges and needs and different talents and knowledge. When I was having problems with cliquishness among the girls, I brought it up at lunch and got some excellent ideas from the other teachers. I wasn't afraid to bring it up because I know people here are on my side. If someone thinks they hear a strange noise coming from my room, they'll stop to check it out. It isn't everyone for themselves and just mind your own business.

"I think these people are darn good at what they do. I know I can learn from them and believe I have things to offer in return. Sometimes we evaluate and develop curriculum and plan special projects together, like Esther, Lorrie, and Allen doing the one-week SCIS workshop for all of us this summer. Teaching each other sometimes requires more time to plan than 'expert-led' workshops, but it allows us to work together on a significant project. Similarly our study groups—organized around topics such as cooperative learning, thinking skills, and involving senior citizens—allow us to exchange ideas. In this school we resist the notion that teaching is our 'second most private activity.'"

2. Experimentation

"Teaching is an intellectually exciting activity. Around here we are encouraged by administrators and colleagues to experiment with new ideas and techniques because that is how teachers and schools improve. And we can drop experiments that do not work and be rewarded for having tried. We are always looking for more effective ways of teaching. Just last year we published 'Opening Classroom Doors,' a booklet with short descriptions of new ideas tried in classrooms. One teacher, for example, shared how she used jigsaw activities to do cooperative learning in social studies."

3. High Expectations

"In this school the teachers and administrators are held accountable for high performance through regular evaluations. We are specifically expected to practice collegiality and to experiment with new ideas. We are rewarded when we do and sanctioned if we don't. Our continued professional development is highly valued by the school community. While we often feel under pressure to excel, we thrive on being part of a dynamic organization."

4. Trust and Confidence

"Administrators and parents trust my professional judgment and commitment to improvement—no matter how effective I already am—and show confidence in my ability to carry out my professional development and to design instructional activities. We are encouraged to bring new ideas into our classes and given discretion with budgets for instructional materials."

5. Tangible Support

"When I need help to improve my instruction, people extend themselves to help me with both time and resources. Indeed, when resources become scarce, professional development remains a priority. Around here people believe the professional knowledge and skills of teachers are so important to good schooling that developing human resources is a high and continued commitment. Despite financial constraints we still have sabbaticals, summer curriculum workshops, and funds to attend professional conferences."

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Reaching Out to the Knowledge Base

"Cultures are built through the everyday business of school life. It is the way business is handled that both forms and reflects the culture."

These first five norms have complicated and dependent relationships with one another. Little (1981) has written at length about the first three norms in her studies of "good schools." In these schools, leaders have high expectations that teachers will be collegial and experiment in their teaching. Rather than being dependent on fortuitous chemistry in a group (though it helps), collegiality is an expectation that is explicitly stated by the leader, rewarded when it happens, and sanctioned when it doesn't. Barth (1984) goes so far as to argue that "the nature of the relationships among the adults who inhabit a school has more to do with the school's quality and character, and with the accomplishment of its pupils, than any other factor." The importance of leaders being explicit about what they want and pressing for it is supported by recent work on school change (Loucks, 1983). While leaders need to be direct about what they expect, excellent leaders allow people plenty of latitude in choosing how they realize it:

> My interpretation of the school effectiveness literature leads me to believe that these schools are both tightly coupled and loosely coupled, an observation noted as well by Peters and Waterman in their studies of America's best run corporations. There exists in excellent schools a strong culture and clear sense of purpose, which defines the general thrust and nature of life for their inhabitants. At the same time, a great deal of freedom is given to teachers and others as to how these essential core values are to be honored and realized. This combination of tight structure around clear and explicit themes, which represent the core of the school's culture, and of autonomy for people to pursue these themes in ways that make sense to them, may well be a key reason for their success (Sergiovanni, 1984, p. 13).

Thus, leaders might require teachers to work on expanding their repertoires of teaching skills but leave the choice of how and what up to them. Simultaneously, though, these leaders would offer tangible support—for example, one release afternoon a month—and provide a menu of options such as in-house study groups, outside speakers, tuition for attending workshops or courses, or support for individual projects.

6. Reaching Out to the Knowledge Base

"There are generic knowledge bases about teaching skills and how students learn; about teaching methods in particular areas; about young people's cognitive and affective development; and about each of the academic disciplines. These knowledge bases are practical, accessible, and very large. Teachers and supervisors are continually reaching out to them to improve their teaching and supervision."

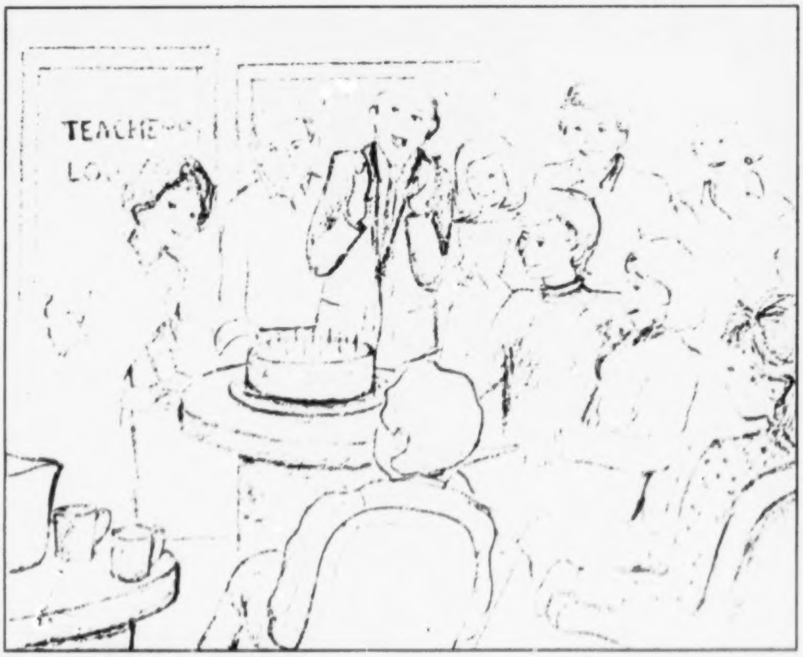
There are two features of this norm we would like to highlight. The first is its aggressively curious nature. There is always more to learn, and we can respond to that understanding with energy and reach out beyond our classes or our buildings, sharing journals, attending workshops, visiting each other and other sites. A principal could model this by inviting several teachers to visit another school with him or her. Such an activity might build collegiality by bringing together teachers who don't normally work together. Indeed, as much may happen during the ride together and over lunch as happens during the visit itself.

The second feature of this norm is the reality and usefulness of these knowledge bases. The erroneous belief that there is no knowledge base about teaching limits any vision of teacher improvement. It is also isolating because in the absence of knowledge, good teaching must be intuitive; if "goodness" is inborn and intuitive, then having problems is a sign of inadequacy or too little of the "right stuff." This syndrome discourages talking about one's teaching, especially one's problems. Furthermore, if good teaching is intuitive and there's no knowledge base, what's the good of working on improvement?

But the knowledge base on teaching is very real and expanding all the time. It tells us that there are certain things that all teachers do, regardless of age group, grade, or subject. It tells us the situations or missions that all teachers have to deal with in one way or another. It also tells us what our options are for dealing with each area of teaching, and that matching behaviors and techniques to specific students is the name of the game. In some cases, it even gives us guidelines for how to go about the matching.

Teachers make decisions and act to deal with numerous aspects of their instruction and relationships with students. For example, experts agree that there are dozens of ways to gain and maintain attention, several kinds of objectives (Saphier and Gower, 1982), and over 20 models of teaching (Joyce and Weil, 1980). Because there are many ways to deal with each of the myriad of teaching tasks, skillful teaching involves continually broadening one's repertoire in each area and picking from it appropriately to match particular students and curriculums. The knowledge base about teaching is the available repertoire of moves and patterns of action in any area, available for anyone to learn, to refine, and to do skillfully.

"Giving shape and direction to a school's culture should be a clear, articulated vision of what the school stands for, a vision that embodies core values and purposes."



Caring, Celebration, and Humor

Consider another knowledge base. Each subject has, in addition to the formal knowledge of its discipline, a how-to knowledge base of teaching methods and materials. Where it is the norm to consult the knowledge bases, teachers are reaching to learn new methods and examine the latest materials and not to find the single best ones, because there are no best ones. They seek to expand their repertoires so as to expand their capacity to reach students with appropriate instruction.

This particular norm, reaching out to the knowledge bases, is one of the least understood and most neglected. It is also one of the most powerful for rejuvenating an ailing school culture. In schools where the knowledge bases are cultivated, a common language for talking about instruction emerges. This language reduces the isolation commonly experienced by teachers (Lortie, 1972).

7. Appreciation and Recognition

"Good teaching is honored in this school and community. The other day I found a short note from the principal in my mailbox: 'When Todd and Charley were rough-housing in the hall you spoke to them promptly and firmly yet treated them maturely by explaining the whys of your intervention. It really makes our grown-up talk about respect mean something when teachers take responsibility for all kids the way you do.' He just observed that incident for a minute, yet took the time to give me feedback. (Somehow it had more impact in writing, too.) Things like that make me feel there is a real value placed on what I do with students. I am recognized for my efforts and achievements in the classroom and the school."

There are many ways this message can be sent: teacher recognition as a regular feature of school committee meetings; PTA luncheons at the beginning and end of the year for faculty and staff; short notes in teachers' mailboxes from a principal who notes something praiseworthy during a walk around the building; perhaps even superior service awards written up each year in local newspapers with stipends given annually to a few teachers. Of course, underlying these efforts should be a pay scale that is at least competitive with neighboring districts.

8. Caring, Celebration, and Humor

"There are quite a number of occasions when we show our caring for each other and awareness of significant events in each others' lives, as well as celebrating benchmarks in the life of the school. Estelle, for example, somehow arranges a 15-minute party with some goody for every faculty member's birthday in her building. We often have these short but satisfying little gatherings in the teacher's room before the kids come in. There is a lot of humor and laughing together in this school."

9. Involvement in Decision Making

"I am included in certain meaningful decision-making processes in this school, especially when they directly affect me or my kids. That doesn't mean I am consulted on all policies or decisions; but to tell you the truth, I don't want to be—I'd never get all of my own work done. But when I am consulted, it's not a phony gesture; my input is taken seriously. And there are mechanisms open for me to raise issues. Last spring I asked the faculty advisory council to look at how kids were treating each other in the halls. That led to a faculty brainstorming session on the topic of school climate. I don't always get people to buy into my issues, or even ask them to. But when I do, the issues are treated seriously, and I am esteemed for bringing them up even if my solutions do not carry the day."

10. Protection of What's Important

"Administrators protect my instruction and planning time by keeping meetings and paperwork to a minimum. In fact, we don't even have faculty meetings in the usual sense . . . certainly not just for business and announcements. Those needs get covered by memos and word-of-mouth contact with the principal. When we do meet, it is for curriculum and instruction purposes, often in small groups like the study group on learning styles I was in last spring."

11. Traditions

"There is always something special to look forward to as I scan the calendar. Be it a fair, a trip, or a science Olympiad, there are events coming up that students and teachers alike see as refreshing or challenging and a definite change of pace. Some of these traditions are rooted in ceremony, others in activity. They exist both in the curriculum as grade-level projects or activities, and as recurrent events within the life of the school."

12. Honest, Open Communication

"I take responsibility for sending my own messages. I can speak to my

colleagues and administrators directly and tactfully when I have a concern or a beef without fear of losing their esteem or damaging our relationship. Around here people can disagree and discuss, confront and resolve matters in a constructive manner and still be supportive of each other. And I can listen to criticism as an opportunity for self-improvement without feeling threatened."

Robert Hinton captures these qualities when describing changing relationships in a Chinese village during the revolution:

> One had to cultivate the courage to voice sincerely held opinions regardless of the views held by others, while at the same time showing a willingness to listen to others and to change one's own opinion when honestly convinced of error. To bow with the wind, to go along with the crowd was an irresponsible attitude that could never lead to anything but trouble. . . .The reverse of this, to be arrogant and unbending, was just as bad (Hinton, 1966, p. 395).

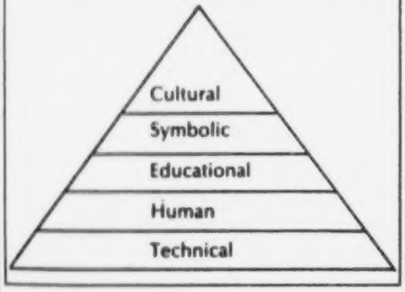
This type of communication is supported by several of the cultural norms. Difficult issues and criticism require an inner conviction that one is all right and respected by others. Appreciation and Recognition, Involvement in Decision Making, and Reaching Out to the Knowledge Bases support this kind of mutual respect.

How to Build the Norms of School Culture

Sergiovanni (1984) describes five leadership forces where actions make a difference in building good schools (see Figure 2). Effective leaders have skills with which to apply each force.

Technical skills pertain to such managerial matters as scheduling and delegating; human skills include listening,

Figure 2. Sergiovanni's Leadership Forces that Build Good Schools.



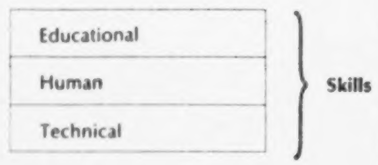
"The knowledge base on teaching is very real and expanding all the time. It tells us that there are certain things that all teachers do, regardless of age group, grade, or subject."

Trust and Confidence

group dynamics, and conflict resolution. Educational skills include knowledge about teaching and learning; symbolic skills include knowledge of and commitment to core institutional values and ways of articulating and representing them. And the cultural arena involves building norms such as the 12 discussed here. But if we are to understand what leaders do to build and maintain excellence in schools, the relationship among these five forces and arenas for action needs expansion.

Leaders show their technical, human, and educational skills through activities that call them forth rather directly. A parents' night must be organized (technical and human); difficult meetings chaired (human); and conferences held after classroom observations (human and educational). We offer the proposition that leaders show their symbolic and culture-building skills through those same activities and not in separate activities that are exclusively symbolic or cultural (with exceptions like opening-of-school speeches that are symbolic occasions). From this perspective Sergiovanni's diagram might be redrawn as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Cultural and Symbolic Skills.



"Our district distributes $6,000 service awards for recognizing teachers' contributions in a variety of areas."

Cultures are built through the everyday business of school life. It is the way business is handled that both forms and reflects the culture. Leaders with culture-building on their minds bring an ever-present awareness of these cultural norms to their daily interactions, decisions, and plans, thus shaping the way events take place. Because of this dynamic, culture-building occurs simultaneously and through the way school people use their educational, human, and technical skills in handling daily events or establishing regular practices.

For example, suppose there is interest in a revised curriculum planning procedure. What would a culture-builder do in a leadership position? A sure way to prevent the crisis-management of curriculum—where small numbers of parents can successfully pressure a school board, superintendent, or principal to "look into" a curriculum area such as science—is to maintain a planning process that systematically and routinely evaluates and renovates all curriculum areas. Such a system might ask parent-teacher committees to assess the existing curriculum by reviewing literature, consulting experts, and interviewing parents. Having estabished a curriculum's strengths and weaknesses, the committee could write a statement of philosophy to guide the next phase—the identification of new curriculums, texts, and activities—recognizing that the review process might well validate existing programs.

With the first phase of planning complete, the parents leave the committee and turn the actual development of new curriculum over to the faculty and administration. Over the next several years programs and activities are piloted and implemented, leading back to the evaluation phase in approximately five years. In this way

". . . collegiality is an expectation that is explicitly stated by the leader, rewarded when it happens, and sanctioned when it doesn't."

all curriculum areas can be located on the planning cycle. While this approach to curriculum planning can be done by whole school systems, the process is especially powerful when conducted in individual schools.

A planning process such as this is itself an opportunity for infusing the cultural norms into a school. A good place to start is with a leader offering to parents and teachers Lightfoot's (1983) notion of a "consciousness of imperfection," a perspective in which we assume that any school has areas of strength and weakness and that the "good" school is distinguished by its openness to dealing with its imperfections. The school leader could use this opportunity to point out how improvements emerge from a culture that embodies norms such as our 12. She or he can then outline a process that demands experimentation by piloting new curriculum and encourage collegiality by asking teachers to work together on evaluation and design. Central to the planning is a commitment to involve stakeholders in decision making while being clear about the limits of their influence.

After completing the review, the administrator must ensure that teachers receive support to carry out their plans. For example, if a science committee recommends integrating microcomputers into science laboratories, funds need to be budgeted for purchasing equipment and training teachers. While providing support, the principal needs to emphasize the high expectations she or he has for their work. Building specific goals into teachers' formal evaluation—which should take place no less than every three years—is a useful way of making the connection between support and high expectations. Down the road a principal will want to recognize teachers' efforts by reporting to the superintendent and school board and perhaps even attaching rewards for their efforts. Our district distributes six thousand dollar service awards for recognizing teachers' contributions in a variety of areas.

The culture builders in any school bring an ever-present awareness of the 12 norms to everything they do in the conduct of daily business. It is this awareness and commitment to culture building that is more important than any single activity or structure in the school organization. Once we are clear about what the important norms of a strong culture are, the activities and forms through which we build them are legion.

If we are serious about school improvement and about attracting and retaining talented people to school careers, then our highest priority should be to maintain reward structures that nurture adult growth and sustain the school as an attractive workplace. A strong culture is crucial to making schools attractive workplaces. If the norms we have outlined are strong, the school will not only be attractive, it will be energized and constantly improving.☐

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BEVERLY SHOWERS, BRUCE JOYCE, AND BARRIE BENNETT

Synthesis of Research on Staff Development: A Framework for Future Study and a State-of-the-Art Analysis

The findings from 30 years of research and practical experience point to the importance of program design in providing staff development that teachers can take back to their classrooms.

Over the last ten years we have been accumulating a file of research pertinent to staff development with two purposes in mind: (1) to organize the literature to facilitate cumulative research by permitting current studies to build on previous ones, and (2) to assess the research to locate those areas where the findings are firm enough to provide working hypotheses for program design.

Here we describe the nature of the research, present a framework for accumulating it, and discuss selected areas where the research is well developed and others where it appears to be badly needed. As the file develops and analyses of the results are made, the product will be a continuing, regularly updated meta-analysis, with interpretations to guide further research and policy development. A more complete report will appear in *Power in Staff Development Through Research on Training*, second edition. (Joyce and Showers in preparation. See also

Photograph by Jane Sutherlin Lane

The teacher who takes charge of organizing staff development contributes to a productive climate in her district

". . . teachers with the most positive self-concepts generated the most individual- and group-governed options and profited most from them, and cooperated enthusiastically with the system-generated options."

Bruce Joyce, Beverly Showers, and Carol Rolheiser-Bennett, "Staff Development and Student Learning: A Synthesis of Research on Models of Teaching," *Educational Leadership*, October 1987, 11–22.)

Finding and Partitioning the Knowledge Base

Nearly all the research relevant to staff development has been conducted during the last 20 years. In 1957 the authors of the NSSE yearbook on inservice education (Henry 1957) could draw on only about 50 studies, including only a half-dozen experimental studies in the areas of training, curriculum improvement, or the implementation of innovations. Most of the authors suggested areas needing research and squeezed the limited knowledge base for such conclusions as they could warrant.

By 1977 the knowledge base had broadened considerably; but still nearly all the literature was descriptive or conceptual. Only a small proportion of the articles and books either reported research or mentioned existing studies (Nicholson and Joyce 1976).

During the last ten years the amount of research has continued to increase, and the results have been integrated with studies of curriculum and innovation to enlarge the knowledge base substantially (Fullan 1982, Miles and Huberman 1984). In previous reviews (Joyce and Showers 1981, 1983) we found that the number of studies dealing with the acquisition of teaching skills and strategies permitted the development of hypotheses about how teachers acquire teaching skills and strategies, although the number of investigations into how skills are incorporated into the active repertoire continued to be quite small.

Sources of Research

To build the file of research, we pursued the conventional avenues, searching ERIC, dissertation abstracts, indices of pertinent journals, and bibliographies of books and articles. The search included the topics of preservice and inservice teacher education, staff development, curriculum implementation, innovation, school improvement, technological implementation, and training in education, business, and the military. We separated the reports of research from the remainder of the literature. We further sifted them to identify the studies where inferential statistics were or could be used, where there were both experimental and control groups or the baseline data were sufficient that the equivalent of a control had been established, and where the data permitted calculation of effect sizes as well as of statistical significance so that a framework for meta-analytic comparison of treatments could be established.

Researcher- and Practitioner-Defined Issues

We also classified the reports according to the questions asked by the researchers, such as, "How does teaching style affect the ability to acquire various teaching strategies?" This classification enabled us to group the studies that had asked the same or similar questions.

In addition, we examined the nonresearch literature to identify questions asked by practitioners and the issues and assumptions put forth by staff development personnel, teachers, and administrators. Issues emerged about where training is held (on-site or off-site), who offers service most effectively (can administrators offer training?), and motivation, governance, voluntariness, and timing. Our objective was to determine the extent to which practitioner issues and assumptions had been studied and, where they had, to find out what had been learned, by matching the research with the questions.

Independent and Dependent Variables Studied

We then analyzed the reports to identify the nature of the independent and dependent variables and the ways they were defined and measured in the studies. Showers (Joyce and Showers in preparation) developed a framework for classifying the variables that includes the following categories:

1. *Teacher characteristics.* Teachers bring to staff development their knowledge and skills, their learning and teaching styles, and their personal characteristics such as states of growth, conceptual flexibility, sense of efficacy, and self-concepts. They also bring perceptions about their needs and preferences for certain kinds of staff development. Depending on the design of the study, teacher characteristics can be independent variables, as in McKibbin and Joyce's study (1980) of the influence of states of growth and self-concept on the implementation of skills learned from training, or dependent variables, as in Showers' study (1980) of the influence of social context on efficacious behavior.

2. *Characteristics of schools and school systems.* Schools and systems can be characterized by types of leadership, the cohesion and synergy of their social systems, the governance processes they employ, and their relationships with the communities they serve. These variables can also function as needs assessments, as baselines, and as moderators. For example, the study of cohesion can serve to identify needs, can become a baseline when cohesion is the objective of a program, and can be examined as a moder[illegible]hen a program interacts with the social system of the school, as when a faculty begins a peer coaching program.

3. *Staff development programs.* Such programs can be defined by the goals and objectives they seek to accomplish, the processes employed in training, and the degrees of their implementation. Their goals can be the source of the dependent variables of an evaluation. In the research literature the major objectives include attitudes toward the training events, knowledge about an approach or theory, and, less often, knowledge of academic content, simple teaching skills, complex teaching skills and strategies, curriculum patterns, and student learning. In the areas of both simple and complex teaching skills, we distinguish those studies that measure the attainment of skill per se and those that measure the extent to which skills are transferred into the active teaching repertoire and employed appropriately.

Training processes are independent variables and include presentations of ideas and information, demonstrations, opportunities for practice and feedback, and follow-up of a variety of sorts by trainers, supervisors, and peers.

4. *Student characteristics.* Students also bring to the educational setting knowledge, skills, and personal characteristics, which can be studied to determine goals and program structure, which can operate as baselines, and which can also moderate treatments.

In the course of implementation of a staff development program or even a specific program element, the variables pertaining to teachers, students, schools and school systems, and programs can be altered. Such alterations can confound research or evaluation. For example, Showers' study (1980) of teacher efficacy found large differences in *opportunity* for school improvement activity, staff development, and participation in decision making among the high schools in a single school district where, officially, available resources were equivalent.

One of the most difficult tasks in determining the state of knowledge in a field is the classification of studies according to the combinations of independent and dependent variables employed. For example, three investigators might employ roughly equivalent types of training, with one measuring only attitudinal outcomes, another measuring both attitudes and skill, and a third measuring skill and transfer. The first might find a large effect on attitudes. The second might confirm

Highlights of Research on Staff Development

A meta-analysis of nearly 200 research studies, plus a review of the literature on staff development, shows that:

- What the teacher *thinks* about teaching determines what the teacher *does* when teaching. In training teachers, theref[illegible] we must provide more than "going through the motions" of teaching.
- Almost all teachers can take useful information back to their classrooms when training includes four parts: (1) presentation of theory, (2) demonstration of the new strategy, (3) initial practice in the workshop, and (4) prompt feedback about their efforts.
- Teachers are likely to keep and use new strategies and concepts if they receive coaching (either expert or peer) while they are trying the new ideas in their classrooms.
- Competent teachers with high self-esteem usually benefit more from training than their less competent, less confident colleagues.
- Flexibility in thinking helps teachers learn new skills and incorporate them into their repertoires of tried and true methods.
- Individual teaching styles and value orientations do not often affect teachers' abilities to learn from staff development.
- A basic level of knowledge or skill in a new approach is necessary *before* teachers can "buy in" to it.
- Initial enthusiasm for training is reassuring to the organizers but has relatively little influence upon learning.
- It doesn't seem to matter where or when training is held, and it doesn't really matter what the role of the trainer is (administrator, teacher, or professor). What does matter is the training design.
- Similarly, the effects of training do not depend on whether teachers organize and direct the program, although social cohesion and shared understandings do facilitate teachers' willingness to try out new ideas.

the first, but find only modest effect on skills. The third might confirm the second, but find virtually no transfer. If the second-order analysts do not keep the studies carefully classified according to the independent and dependent variables, their findings can be badly flawed; some purported meta-analyses have drawn erroneous conclusions because of a failure to do so.

Also, the quality of measurement is always important. For example, a researcher who accepts only the frequency of use of a new practice as an indicator of transfer and fails to measure appropriateness of use is also liable to draw erroneous conclusions.

The Chain-of-Effects Problem

As we attempt to reach toward knowledge and interpret it for policymakers and educators, the number of variables and their complexity provide us with a serious problem. Ultimately, at the very least, we need to understand:

- *people*, including how they respond differently to training and how it can be adjusted for maximum comfort and effect;
- *social context*, and how it affects the behavior of people, the implementation of training, and, reciprocally, how training affects social organization;
- *training components*, and how they contribute to the development of knowledge, skill, and transfer, as well as what conditions (including governance, setting, trainers, and shared understandings) affect the ability of programs to achieve their goals; and
- *degrees of implementation*, and how they affect student learning in the personal, social, and academic domains.

A serious weakness in the nonresearch literature is the tendency of the investigators to concentrate on one category of variables at the expense of others. Excessive concentration on a particular teacher characteristic—motivation, for example—without balanced consideration of others can lead to the impression that high motivation solves even such problems as poor training. Similarly, concentration on governance, "buy-in," and leadership can give the impression that the social variables are all-powerful. This does not mean that every researcher has to build all possible variables into a design, but interpretation requires that a narrowly focused study be placed in the larger context.

> **". . . site is less an issue of effectiveness of training than it is one of convenience and ease of involving participants."**

What Is Known: Field-Defined Issues

We will not attempt here to present our entire analysis to date or all the findings relative to the issues. Rather, we will indicate the nature of the knowledge base and how it can be used, present some of the more important results, and discuss how careful evaluation by staff development personnel can contribute to knowledge. We begin with some of the issues derived from the nonresearch literature.

Participatory governance and social context. Teacher involvement in the governance process has been advocated with increasing intensity for the last 15 years (Joyce, Howey, and Yarger 1976). Since few advocates have generated research, only a handful of studies are available; but the results are interesting.

Merton and Yarger (1981) studied federally funded teacher centers, all of which were governed by teachers. Their work clearly indicates that teachers are capable of taking prominent leadership roles in staff development centers and can play the role of organizers and trainers. However, teacher centers generally produced the same types of programs that were being sponsored by education agencies. They ran into the same problems of participation (generally already active teachers) and "follow-up" (nearly all their offerings lacked provision for coaching or other arrangements to facilitate transfer). In an evaluation of Vancouver's extensive staff development program (teacher-governed, teacher-taught), McDougall (1987) found that transfer depended on the type of training and follow-up rather than upon governance per se.

Berman and McLaughlin (1975), in their oft-cited study of federal programs, provided clear evidence that both leadership and involvement of personnel affected implementation and, therefore, that both "vertical" and "horizontal" solidarity were important. Fullan's synthesis (1982) drove toward the core of that matter, as he stressed that "shared understandings" fuel and sustain innovations, regardless of whether they originate with teachers, building administrators, or the school system. Little's study (1982) illustrated how important social cohesiveness is to the implementation of staff development and school improvement efforts.

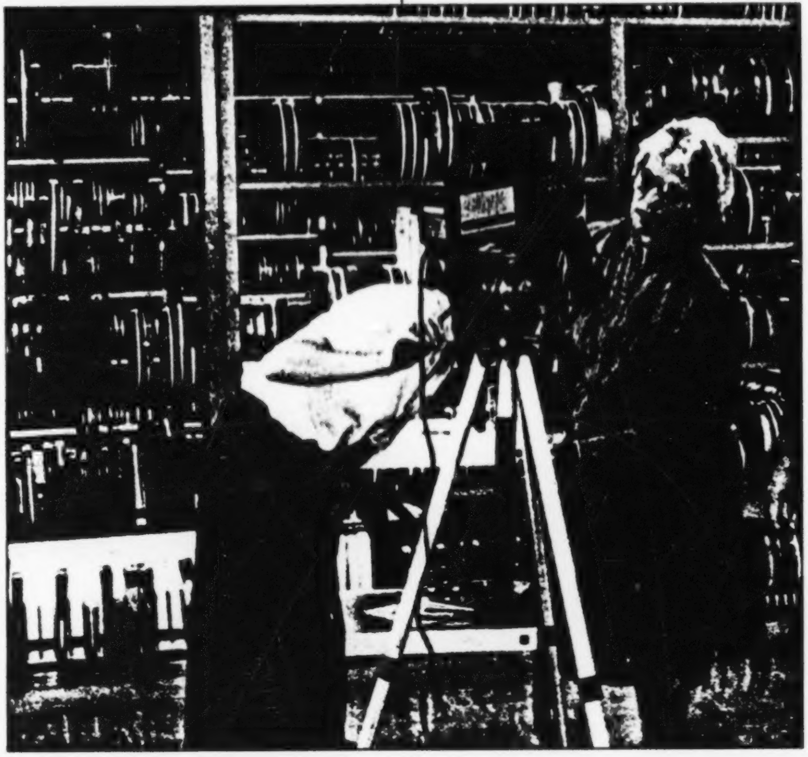
In a study of the Urban-Rural School Development Program, Joyce (1978) reported a useful distinction between "structural" or formal parity among teachers, administrators, and community members and "process" parity, whereby the actual governance process provided each "role group" with a voice in the policy chain, from decision making to implementation. The greater the parity in the process, the greater the probability for implementation and for its actualization, including effects on teacher and student behavior.

McKibbin and Joyce (1980) provided the closest to an experimental study of governance when they compared individually governed, group-governed, and system-generated staff development opportunities for a period of four years, with transfer as a dependent variable. They found that teacher characteristics, notably conceptual level, self-concept, and states of growth, interacted with the three governance styles. For example, teachers with the most positive self-concepts generated the most individual- and group-governed options and profited most from them, and cooperated enthusiastically with the system-generated options. Persons with weaker self-concepts and lower general states of growth profited little from any of the options. Essentially, effects from governance styles were low, whereas the effects from teacher characteristics were very large: teachers who felt best about themselves transferred nearly seven times more from the content of training than did those whose self-concepts were most precarious.

More work is needed on the issue of governance. We believe that involvement is important and desirable. However, the other categories of variables come into play also, as further discussion will show, and need to be taken into account.

Site of training. Although the literature often mixes site with governance (local people defining local needs and conducting the training they need on *their* own ground), the issue of *where* training is held is frequently mentioned. Again, there are no experimental studies—no one, as far as we know, has randomly assigned people to on- and off-site locations—but there are a good many studies that report where training was held: either at the school where the participants worked or in some other setting. Judging from those studies, site per se is not particularly important. Some of the most and some of the least effective training takes place both on- and off-site (Bennett 1987). We suspect that site is less an issue of effectiveness of training than it is one of convenience and ease of involving participants.

When training is held. The picture is about as above. There are no experimental studies, but there are quite a few representing almost all conceivable time combinations with respect to time of year and day. The training schedule does not appear to matter as much as the substance, process, and social context do (Bennett 1987).



Learning to use a video camera, a teacher can see how it really works when she watches a demonstration.

Photograph by Carol Sarath

The role assignments of trainers. Are teachers the most acceptable trainers? Can administrators or supervisors combine the role of formal leader and evaluator with that of trainer? Can professors be effective? Can researchers be coaches? Although we believe that the processes of evaluation should be separated from training for several reasons (Joyce and Showers 1987), effectiveness as a trainer does not appear to be role-connected. Training design is, however, very important (see below) and may reflect on the trainer. We can almost conclude that the "good" trainer, rather than coming from one or another population of potential trainers, is one who has a good design and knows how to use it.

Voluntariness and "buy-in." Much of the practitioner-generated literature manifests deep concern with the extent to which participants select and believe in the training they will receive. An experimental study is badly needed in this area, because the concern is heartfelt. The McKibbin-Joyce study cited above is the closest to an experimental study; it found that personal characteristics and quality of training overrode the governance options (individual, collective, and system-directed). Fullan's analysis (1982) supports the function of organizational solidarity, as does the work of Berman and McLaughlin (1975) and Little (1982).

However, the real news comes from studies by Crandall and others (1982), particularly the aspect reported by Miles and Huberman (1984), who found that commitment *follows* competence, rather than preceding it. Essentially, without extensive training, persons do not have sufficient knowledge or experience to "buy in." Once they develop skill and learn to use it, they reach a position where they *can* make a decision.

Further, Showers' study (1982), in which participants were brought to a level of skill where they could practice several models of teaching effectively and then assigned to different training conditions, indicated clearly that attained level of skill, enthusiasm for the innovation, and voluntariness were *not*, even in combination, sufficient to sustain practice until transfer occurred. But the training condition of coaching *was* effective for teachers of different levels of initial skill and commitment.

Obviously, enthusiasm helps. However, competence may be a precondition for commitment. Precompetence "commitment," while it may make for more pleasant initial training sessions, may not be a substitute for appropriate training components. From our own ideological position, people *should* be involved in the social process that surrounds training and *should* be dealt with as people whose opinions matter. The data suggest, though, that initial enthusiasm is not a critical factor.

The situation may be analogous to skiing. Until you are good at it, how can you possibly like it? When you are good at it, you may very well find that, against all odds, you do like it. But, at that point, you can elect to participate or not, as you compare it to other options, from a strong position. In terms of professional practice, of course, a dispassionate approach may be most appropriate. If a given teaching strategy *works* and increases student growth, our predispositions may not be as important as we thought. Possibly a general commitment to students may be more important than a prejudgment that we will prefer the teaching strategies when we have mastered them.

". . . teachers who felt best about themselves transferred nearly seven times more from the content of training than did those whose self-concepts were most precarious."

It has been well established that nearly all teachers *can* learn a wide variety of teaching approaches and that "natural" teaching styles do not dictate future repertoires (Joyce, Peck, and Brown 1981); it need not be assumed that initial attraction for a relatively minor outcome of training such as a single teaching strategy will be definitive. A disposition toward growth in general, however, may be very important, as we will see in the next section.

Personal characteristics. Both practitioners and researchers have long been concerned with individual differences in response to training and have searched for ways of predicting how people will respond to opportunities to learn. Probably because of the tradition of using norm-referenced achievement tests whose scores are so much predicted by social status and measures of academic aptitude, educators often assume that individual characteristics will have great influence on learning. Therefore, the literature is replete with the assumption that if people are highly motivated, flexible, and good "risk-takers," then the results of training will be positive.

Research on conceptual flexibility (Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder 1961) supports the assumption that conceptual flexibility influences the variety of teaching strategies that people develop naturally (Hunt and Joyce 1967, Brown 1967, Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983) and the ease with which they acquire new repertoires (Joyce, Weil, and Wald 1973) and transfer new skills into their active repertoires (Showers 1984). Conceptual flexibility also influences the general response to training, including requests for assistance (Calhoun 1985), as well as the response to opportunities for growth.

". . . the 'good' trainer. . . is one who has a good design and knows how to use it."

Rarely has the effect of self-concept on transfer of training been investigated; but when it has, self-concept has been found to be a strong influence on the ability to "drive" new teaching skills to the point of implementation (McKibbin and Joyce 1980).

Individual teaching styles, as well as the value orientations of teachers, appear to be independent of ability to learn new teaching skills (Joyce, Peck, and Brown 1981). Personal motivation to grow does affect response to training, although it does not suffice for adequately designed training.

Despite gaps in the knowledge base and the remarkably low incidence of studies investigating the variables in which practitioners have an investment, we think it is a safe bet to:

- involve teachers in all aspects of governance;
- expect differential responses to any training option but have confidence in carefully selected substance and carefully designed training;
- build strong organizational contexts to support training;
- assume that role designation has little to do with competence as a trainer; and

". . . the observable interactive behaviors of teaching . . . are directed by thoughts about what to do, when to do it, and why it will have an effect."

- worry little about where training is held or when, as long as all personnel are involved in the selection of times and places.

What Is Known: Researcher-Defined Issues

Nearly all the researchers have studied questions pertinent to the design of training. We believe that the purpose of training design is to create the conditions under which sufficient levels of knowledge and skill are developed to sustain practice and to provide the conditions that support practice until executive control has been achieved and transfer has occurred.

The body of research includes studies that explored the effects of both single training components and various combinations of them on knowledge, skill, and transfer. When our collection is complete, there will be about 200 usable studies. Our current file probably contains 80 to 90 percent of the studies done since 1960: from these we have identified topics receiving different degrees of attention and some clearly discernible trends in the findings that can inform future research and practice.

First, relatively simple teaching skills and behaviors (such as questioning and giving feedback) have received much more attention than have teaching strategies and curriculum implementation. Teaching skills have much more often been the objectives of training than have academic content and its role as a component of teaching competence. Second, manifestations of visible behavior have been studied much more than the intellectual aspects of teaching, such as the appropriate use of a skill or strategy. In addition, only a dozen or so studies

Photograph by Carl A. Hess

The presentation of theory is the first element of successful training, shown here by naturalist Phil Haas's discussion on amphibian egg masses in a pond at Hawk Mountain.

To ensure that new procedures transfer to the settings where they are needed, the learner must practice again and again with feedback from her coaches.

Photograph by Jeannie Malatesta

have included transfer, or the incorporation of skills, strategies, and curriculum patterns into participants' active teaching repertoires. Nearly all of these have been done in the last ten years, moreover, as researchers have realized that studies that stop short of transfer can be misleading. We will begin with the most general findings and proceed toward the more specific ones.

The first message from training research is that the important components of teaching practices are cognitive in nature. That is, the observable interactive behaviors of teaching, while important (they are what the learner perceives and responds to), are directed by *thoughts* about what to do, when to do it, and why it will have an effect (Joyce and Showers 1987, Chapter 8). Research on the processing of information while teaching indicates that the intellectual processes of selecting teaching practices, adapting instructional materials, "reading" the students' responses, and modulating environments to generate student learning energy are the critical elements that determine whether a teaching practice will have effect (see, for example, Dalton and Dodd 1986, Showers in press).

Thus, the purpose of providing training on any practice is not simply to generate the external visible teaching "moves" that bring that practice to bear in the instructional setting but to generate the cognitions that enable the practice to be selected and used appropriately and integratively. As we examine the effects of training components on the acquisition of knowledge, skill, and appropriate use or transfer, therefore, we have to remember that these variables cannot be meaningfully separated in practice. Separating them is useful only as we accumulate research and try to determine how training components contribute to each of them. The understanding of any given practice, the skill required to generate the interactive moves necessary to employ that practice, and the cognitions necessary for appropriate and integrated use—all blur together as the objectives of training.

An extremely important yield from the research is that a major, perhaps *the* major, dimension of teaching skill

"An extremely important yield from the research is that a major, perhaps *the* major, dimension of teaching is cognitive in nature."

"For a complex model of teaching . . . about 25 teaching episodes during which the new strategy is used are necessary before all the conditions of transfer are achieved."

is cognitive in nature. Moreover, this interpretation of the research has important implications for the design of training. Each training component contributes to the acquisition of knowledge, as can be seen from the effect sizes when the components are used together. Where information-only training is used, the average effect size on knowledge acquisition is modest, about .7. When presentations, demonstrations, and opportunities for practice and feedback are combined, the effect on measures of knowledge averages about 3. Observing demonstrations and practicing apparently add dimensions of understanding to the study of teaching skills and strategies and curricular patterns. As Good (1986) has pointed out, even those teaching skills that appear superficially quite simple require more extensive training than was previously thought.

For the researcher, this finding creates the necessity of not only determining whether the visible interactive behaviors are present but measuring knowledge and its use. The researcher cannot simply "count" the occurrence of behaviors as evidence that skills have been acquired and can be used appropriately.

Combinations of four components (theory, demonstration, practice, and feedback) appear necessary to develop the levels of cognitive and interactive skills that permit practice in the classroom. For most teachers, even combinations such as demonstrations along with the study of theory do not appear to produce high enough effects to sustain classroom practice, unless they also have the opportunities to practice in the training setting. However, in a number of studies (Joyce, Weil, and Wald 1973; Brown 1967; Reid 1975; and Showers 1984), the theory-demonstration-practice-feedback combination produced effect sizes often in excess of 10, enabling virtually all teachers in the studies to reach levels of skill that could sustain classroom practice in sets of complex models of teaching. This finding has quite optimistic implications, for it indicates that appropriately designed training enables teachers to display their considerable learning capability. While research can no doubt improve training design greatly, current tools can enable teachers to increase their repertoires dramatically.

Of course, sustained practice in the classroom is necessary until transfer is achieved, or there will be an erosion of the cognitive and interactive skills necessary to implement the practice. For a complex model of teaching, we estimate that about 25 teaching episodes during which the new strategy is used are necessary before all the conditions of transfer are achieved. Once this condition is achieved, further practice can elaborate the skills and maintain them; but they will not be lost though disuse, although they may get "rusty" and need practice to recover their former vigor.

Skill developed in training does not appear sufficient to sustain the practice until transfer is achieved. Rather, nearly all teachers need social support as they labor through the transfer process. Expert coaches can provide the support, but peer coaches can also. Effect sizes of the studies that have used some form of expert or peer coaching average about 1.3, exclusive of Showers' effect of over 26 where the transfer measure included appropriate use of a set of instructional models (Bennett 1986). Again, the message is an optimistic one, since it appears that the coaching process enables nearly all teachers to sustain practice and gain executive control over a large range of curricular and instructional practices.

Present Practice and Future Policy

Surveys of staff development practice (Joyce, Howey, and Yarger 1976; Joyce, Bush, and McKibbin 1982; Merton and Yarger 1981) confirm the complaints of teachers, principals, and central office personnel that only a small proportion of programs combine the necessary components to develop skill or engender the "follow-up" that sustains practice to the point of transfer. As a result of the consistency in the findings from the research, however, staff developers can proceed fairly confidently to remedy these deficiencies.

Whether relatively simple teaching skills or complex curricular or instructional models are the object of training, the same components appear to

"The study of attitudes toward training indicates that the greater the increase of knowledge, skill, and transfer, the more positive are teachers' attitudes toward the training."

increase knowledge, skills, and the probability of transfer. Not insignificantly, the study of attitudes toward training indicates that the greater the increase of knowledge, skill, and transfer, the more positive are teachers' attitudes toward the training. Stronger training, combined with involvement-oriented governance and the positive effects of active organizational leadership, can lay the basis for some very effective staff development programs.

Also, studies of teaching indicate, as Sirotnik (1983) has pointed out so clearly, that most teachers depend heavily on the recitation pattern of teaching. There is a large reservoir of teaching skills and strategies that promise much greater effects on student learning than does recitation as currently practiced (Joyce, Showers, and Rolheiser-Bennett 1987; Joyce and Showers 1987). Using the findings reported here, staff development can make a substantial contribution to the improvement of our schools, including the achievement and learning capability of our students.☐

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EVALUATION OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT: HOW DO YOU KNOW IT TOOK?[1]

Susan F. Loucks, Marge Melle

In the past several years, staff development has begun to emerge as a valuable means for improving schools, upgrading the skills of educational personnel, and providing opportunities for their personal growth. As staff development gains value, however, the evaluation of staff development programs is all but stagnated. Those in charge still rely primarily on reports of participant satisfaction to determine the success of their programs, be they awareness sessions, workshops, institutes, or individual consultations. While the perceptions of participants yield valuable information, they are not valid indicators of whether staff development has made a difference.

In this article we present several alternatives to satisfaction questionnaires. We describe how we and our colleagues have been able to determine whether anything has changed as a result of staff development programs – how we can tell whether they "took" with the participants who were involved.

Since 1973, work at the Texas Research and Develoment Center for Teacher Education has focused on what happens to individuals (teachers, administrators, college faculty) as they try out new practices, as they implement innovations.[2] In 1976 a collaborative effort was begun with the Jefferson County, Colorado, Public Schools, to design and test an approach to implementing new curricula that relied on staff development with the support of school and district resources. The approach, aimed at meeting the developmental needs of teachers and administrators, was used in a three-year effort to implement a revision of the upper-elementary science curriculum in approximately eighty elementary schools. The effort was monitored continuously through the use of several techniques developed by both collaborating partners. We were able to keep track of three things:

- how teachers' *concerns* about the program changed as it was implemented,
- how teachers' familiarity with and sophistication in *use* of the program changed, and
- to what extent teachers were using each of the program's *components*.

In other articles we and our colleagues have described in detail the staff development design used and the specific findings resulting from its use (Hall *et. al.*, 1980; Loucks and Pratt, 1979). In this article we concentrate on the concepts and the tools we used for evaluating the effort, with just enough about the design and some examples of the findings to make the evaluation come alive. *Here we concentrate on how we determined the actual effects of staff development on teachers in classrooms.*

The Design for Implementing the Revised Curriculum

Briefly, the revised curriculum combined a "hands-on," inquiry approach to science instruction with behavioral objectives and assessment techniques. The new teacher's guide included all necessary procedures, references to materials and equipment, and accompanying worksheets.

The eighty elementary schools in the district were divided into three groups, each beginning implementation at roughly six-month intervals, so that training and resources could be concentrated on a manageable number of teachers and schools at a time. The staff development plan called for activities spread out over a year and designed so they answered the kinds of questions teachers were asking *when* they were asking them. First, the science department was to create awareness of the new curriculum and provide information about inservice activities at a short faculty meeting two to three months before inservice. Subsequently, three full-day released-time inservice sessions were planned for teachers in each phase over a nine-month period. These inservices provided "hands-on" experiences with each unit in the curriculum, plus sessions on such topics as classroom management and discussion techniques.

The framework for the implementation design was the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hall, Wallace and Dossett, 1973), a model which views the change process from the perspective of the individual teacher.

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[1] *The research reported in this article was conducted by the Research and Development Center for Teacher Evaluation at the University of Texas under a contract with the National Institute of Education. The opinions expressed here, however, are those of the authors and do not represent those of the funding agency.*

[2] *In this article, we see staff development as a vehicle for helping people improve what they are doing. These improvements take the form of a new practice, program, process – an "innovation" in its broadest sense. Thus we use the words practice, program and innovation interchangeably. We know from experience that the techniques we describe can be used with a wide range of practices: from a simple strategy for asking different kinds of questions, to a large, complex alternative school. Thus the techniques are useful for staff developers whose job it is to help teachers "improve" their practice in the broadest sense of the term.*

The CBAM is based on the assumption that change is a lengthy, complex and highly personal experience, and that implementation can only be accomplished when the different needs of teachers are met as they emerge.

Two dimensions of the CBAM were utilized in the evaluation of the science implementation. Stages of Concern (see Figure 1) formed the basis for staff development and support activities. Early stages of Awareness, Informational, and Personal concerns (SoC 0, 1, 2), known to be dominant in the beginning of any change effort, were attended to in small, close-knit faculty meetings prior to implementation. Management (Stage 3) concerns, known to emerge as teachers first begin to use a new curriculum, were addressed in the inservice sessions. Because higher Stages of Concern (Stages 4, 5, 6) are known to emerge only with experience and time, few activities in the implementation were targeted at these concerns. However, several self-paced modules aimed at student-oriented needs (such as the implications of Piaget's work for science instruction) were made available during inservice sessions. In general, however, the implementation effort was targeted at lowering Informational, Personal, and Management concerns (SoC 1, 2, 3).

Figure 1
Stages of Concern: Typical Expressions of Concern About the Innovation
(Hall and Loucks, 1978)

Stages of Concern	Expressions of Concern
6 Refocusing	I have some ideas about something that would work even better.
5 Collaboration	I am concerned about relating what I am doing with what other instructors are doing.
4 Consequence	How is my use affecting kids?
3 Management	I seem to be spending all my time in getting material ready.
2 Personal	How will using it affect me?
1 Informational	I would like to know more about it.
0 Awareness	I am not concerned about it (the innovation).

Levels of Use (see Figure 2), describing the behaviors of teachers as they become increasingly more familiar with and skilled in using a program, provided district staff with a tool for goal-setting and informed implementation planning. It was decided early in the effort that the district goal was to have teachers at least at a Routine Level of Use (LoU IVA) at the completion of the implementation.

Figure 2
Levels of Use of the Innovation: Typical Behaviors
(Hall, Loucks, Rutherford and Newlove, 1975)

Level of Use	Behavioral Indices of Level
IV Renewal	The user is seeking more effective alternatives to the established use of the innovation.
V Integration	The user is making deliberate efforts to coordinate with others in using the innovation.
IVB Refinement	The user is making changes to increase outcomes.
IVA Routine	The user is making few or no changes and has an established pattern of use.
III Mechanical	The user is making changes to better organize use of the innovation.
II Preparation	The user is preparing to use the innovation.
I Orientation	The user is seeking out information about the innovation.
O Nonuse	No action is being taken with respect to the innovation.

Monitoring Implementation

During the course of the implementation effort, three methodologies were used to assess its effects. Stages of Concern and Levels of Use data were collected five times during the three-year implementation. A third methodology, developed by the science department and district evaluators, identified program components and used these as the basis for measuring the extent of implementation in another set of schools. We describe each concept below, the measurement procedures we used, and some sample findings.

Stages of Concern

We collected Stages of Concern data using the 35-item Stage of Concern (SoC) Questionnaire (Hall, George and Rutherford, 1977). This 15-minute instrument allows teachers to describe how much concern they feel about different aspects of a new program. It results in a profile of the intensity of concern they feel on each of the seven stages.

Stages of Concern data gave us a clear sense of teachers' needs related to the revised curriculum at any one point in time, and so they were a valuable formative evaluation tool. We could retarget resources, reformulate training designs, and deliver individualized assistance based on individual teacher profiles. Figure 3 provides examples of two teacher profiles. Teacher A (typical of profiles we found *before* inservice had taken place) wanted more information (what is it?) and had questions about personal impact (how will it affect me?); while Teacher B (representative of some of the profiles we found in Jefferson County Schools after inservice) was having problems managing the new program (will I ever get this organized? where do I find the time to set up?). Both sets of concerns suggested specific kinds of information and/or assistance that would have been most relevant to each teacher.

Stages of Concern data aggregated for each school also gave us clues to the influences at the school-level. For example, we found several school profiles that looked like Teacher B's profile. This we found was most often due to a lack of principal commitment to the new program, which resulted in consumable supplies not being reordered, facilities and classes scheduled in such a way that science instruction was difficult, and supply closets that were always in disarray. School profiles allowed us to quickly recognize which schools needed special assistance.

Similarly, district-wide concerns profiles assisted the planning of staff development activities and the overall assessment of whether the plan was having the desired effect. Figure 4 shows a representative sample of teachers from several schools. The solid line indicates concerns well before inservice took place. This first measurement suggested the need for an orientation session, describing the new curriculum and providing basic information. The dashed line represents concerns after inservice had occurred. Information and Personal concerns had decreased without an increase in Management concerns (indicating a successful round of inservices which helped teachers use the curriculum without these typical kinds of problems). The dotted line, one year after implementation, shows a gradual increase in concern about the program's effects on students, another positive sign that the staff development effort had helped focus teachers in productive ways.

Figure 3
Sample Concerns Profiles for Two Teachers

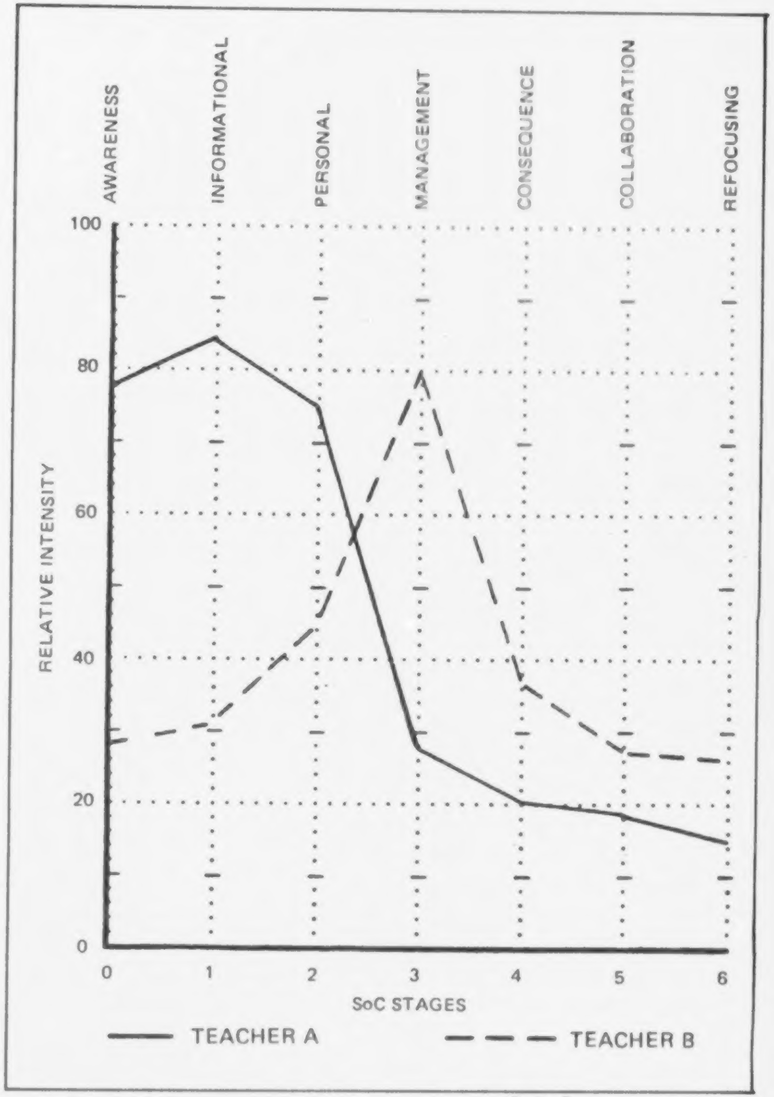
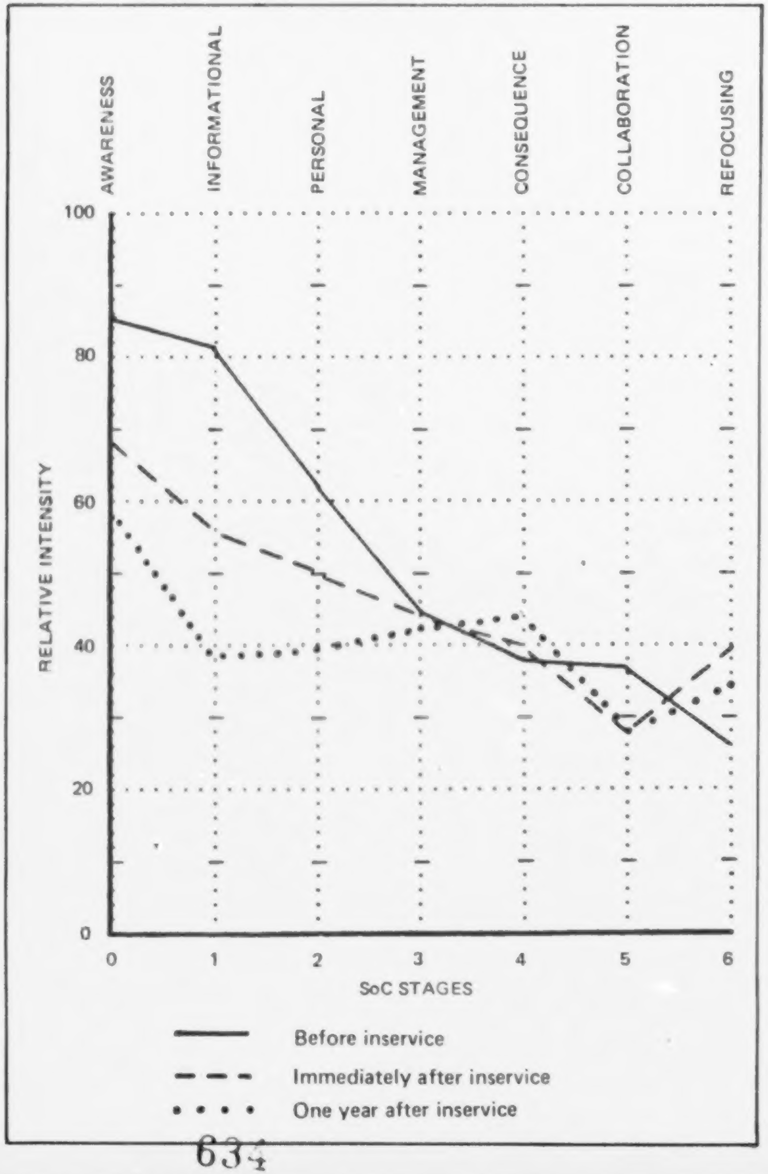


Figure 4
Changes in Concern Over Time for a Group of Jefferson County Teachers



Levels of Use

We used a second monitoring tool, Levels of Use (LoU), to determine how teachers were using the new program, how comfortable, skilled and sensitive to students they were in its use. A focused interview procedure, taking approximately 20 minutes, allowed assignment of a single LoU to a teacher (Loucks, Newlove and Hall, 1976).

Levels of Use data also provided formative evaluation information: how were teachers behaving with the new curriculum? An individual teacher's score suggested information or assistance needed, giving guidance to staff development efforts. A look at how the Levels of Use of a sample of teachers changed over time (see Figure 5) illustrates a progression from nonuse to use, and from disorganized first use to the establishment of a routine.

Figure 5
Levels of Use Distribution for a Sample of Jefferson County Teachers

	0	I	II	III	IVA	IVB	V	VI	
One year before inservice	80	14	1	3	0	0	0	1	N = 69
One month before inservice	12	16	63	4	6	0	0	0	N = 51
Three months after inservice	8	14	6	42	22	4	2	2	N = 50
Fifteen months after inservice	16	2	0	25	41	12	2	2	N = 51

As with Stages of Concern, Levels of Use proved a valuable tool for monitoring change due to the staff development effort, and for determining finally whether the effort had been successful.

Assessing Components of the Program

A final way we used to determine the effect of the staff development program on teachers was to look at how their behaviors changed with respect to the revised curriculum. To do so, it was necessary to define the program carefully, describing each component as to how it might look in the classroom.

This evaluation technique differed from Stages of Concern and Levels of Use in that an instrument had to be developed especially for the science curriculum.[3] In the paragraphs that follow we describe the development of a procedure for describing and assessing the Jefferson County science curriculum, and the several ways the procedure was used.

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[3] *With concerns and use, the instruments are generic and can be used for any new practice, simply by focusing the teacher when expressing concerns and describing use.*

Twelve components of the elementary science program were identified and described in their ideal form. We clustered these twelve components into three categories. These components and categories are described in Figure 6. Once the program components were defined, detailed descriptions of each were written in order to ultimately measure as objectively as possible the extent to which each component was in place in any one classroom. The behaviors were placed on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 – outside the intended program; 2-3 – getting a good start; 4 – well on the way; 5 – best practices in operation. An illustration appears in Figure 7. Instruments and data recording sheets for use in monitoring the extent of implementation of the program as defined by the twelve components were developed by the district's Department of Evaluation (Darnell, 1979). These included a classroom observation checklist and focused interviews for teachers, the principal, and media specialist.

Figure 6
Components of the Science Program

I. Program components over which district policy or procedure appear to have the major influence for implementation in the classroom:

1. *The recommended percentage of teaching time during the day is devoted to science.* An average of 15% of the student's day (10% for third grade) should be devoted to science.
2. *Science is taught according to the district guide.* During the school year the teacher teaches all units, all objectives of each unit, and 90% of the activities.
3. *Students' learning is assessed according to the district science guide.* According to a review of each unit, the teacher uses the guide assessments with students 85% of the time.
4. *Basic skills, as differentiated by the continuum in each curriculum area, are being integrated into the science program.* The basic skills keyed in the guide are being *introduced* or stressed in their *subject area* time allotment while they are being *reinforced* during *science* instruction.
5. *The outdoors is used as a classroom when recommended.* Whenever outdoor activities are recommended as part of a unit, they are always included.

II. Program components over which the building principal and the teacher building and classroom:

6. *All materials, equipment, and media are available.* Appropriate commercial guides and the district guide are available for use. Enough materials are available for individual or small group usage. A storage system of logical sequence is established.
7. *Principals have arranged for release of teachers for the total inservice training package and have allocated financial support to the program.*
8. *Long and short-range planning is evident.* The year's schedule is written out and being implemented by the teacher or the team. This schedule

Figure 6 (Continued)

reflects attention to seasonal demands, sharing of materials, and maximum utilization of space and personnel. Before each unit is taught, overall planning for that unit takes place.

III. Program components over which the teacher has the major influence for implementation in the classroom:

9. *Class time in science is used effectively* (time on task). At least 75% of the class time is devoted to exploration, pupil interaction, recording data, discussions and listening to each other. An efficient management system for distribution and clean-up of materials is evident.
10. *Teacher-student interaction facilitates the program.* Using the students' language, the teacher shares with students the objectives of the units. Discussion techniques include: neutral rewarding, wait time, questions above recall level, maximized use of student-student discussion, and data sharing.
11. *The classroom environment and arrangement facilitates student-student interaction in small groups.* Furniture and materials are arranged in order to facilitate small group interaction. Student behaviors include sharing of materials, listening to each other, working together towards a group goal, and interacting with each other (cooperative learning). Students are task-oriented most of the time.
12. *The instruction in one classroom follows the stages of the learning cycle in science: exploration, concept formation, concept application.*

Implementation of the components of the curriculum was assessed during the second year of use. Interviews and classroom observations were conducted by specially trained certified teachers and by staff members from the evaluation and science departments. In eleven schools, each grade three through six teacher who taught science was interviewed extensively and observed for a total science class on three separate occasions. In addition, the principal and library media specialist for each school were interviewed. A complete description of the study and detailed findings are found in the evaluation report (Darnell, 1979).

The data gathered helped answer several questions about the effect of the staff development program in helping teachers use the curriculum. As shown in Figure 8, it was possible to see clearly how teachers were using each component. Teacher and school profiles enabled staff developers to "troubleshoot" components that were giving teachers problems, either for lack of information, skill, equipment, time or support. For example, in Winter Elementary (Figure 8), most teachers were not assessing science instruction to the extent suggested in the Guide (Component 3). In this particular case, teachers were not clear about how to do the actual

Figure 7
Example of a Component Described

Is Science Taught According to R-1 Guide?

	Outside Intended Program 1	Getting a Good Start 2 — 3	Well on Way — Best Practices Working 4 — 5
A	During the school year the teacher covers less than 85% of the objectives and activites. The teacher may or may not cover units in the guide. If units are taught, more activities are omitted than included.	During the school year 85% of the objectives and 85% of the activities are taught. The teacher covers the units as written and spends the allotted time (see #1). Some units may be abbreviated because an extra amount of time was spent on another unit.	During the school year the teacher teaches all units, all objectives of each unit and 90% of the activities. At the end of some objectives teacher uses Optional Activities to extend the unit with small groups of students.
B	Objectives or activities are not sequenced. Objectives may be used but teacher-made activities mainly are used to accomplish the objectives.	The teacher can: • Point in the guide to the objective that is currently being taught. • Describe what objectives and activites went before and what objectives will come after current activities.	The teacher can relate what objective is being studied and how the activity pertains to accomplishing the objective. He/she can relate what objectives preceded and will succeed the objective being taught.
C	Supplementary media is frequently used in addition to or to the exclusion of hands-on activities.	Teacher uses supplementary media sparingly.	Teacher uses supplementary media sparingly and can demonstrate how supplements which are used support the objectives being taught.

Figure 8
Sample Building Summary Sheet

	Outside Intended Program 1	Getting a Good Start 2	3	Well on the Way 4	Best Practices Working 5
1. Time is devoted to science	••• ••	•	••	•	••
2. Science is taught according to R-1 Guide	••• •••	••• ••			
3. Assessment of pupil learning	••• •••	••• ••			
4. Integration of basic skills	•	••••• ••••	•		
5. The outdoor classroom is used as recommended		••• ••	••• •	••	
6. Recommended materials, equipment and media are available			••• ••	••• •	••
7. Inservicing and financial arrangements have been made		•	••• ••	••• ••	
8. Long and short range planning		•••	••• •••	••	
9. Use of class time	••	••	••••	••	•
10. Teacher-Pupil interaction facilitates program	•••	••••	••••		
11. Classroom environment facilitates program		•••	•••	•••	••
12. Instruction is sequenced to facilitate the guided inquiry learning approach	••	•••• •	••••		

• = one teacher

School Winter Elementary

Teacher All grade 3, 4, 5, 6 teachers

assessments, and so were rarely doing any evaluation of student effort. Staff developers were able to present a short workshop to teachers, clarifying what the assessments required and giving concrete examples of how to observe and record student progress.

Every school had a profile summarizing teachers' use of the science curriculum. This enabled staff developers to work closely with building principals and teachers to diagnose needs and help meet them. In some cases it was as straightforward as presenting a special workshop (as in Winter Elementary), delivering additional equipment, or helping reschedule classes so that teachers had access to a special room for science or a planning period before science to prepare. In other cases the data provoked some healthy dialogues about why things were done as they were, and who had ultimate responsibility for student learning. In one case, for example, a low score for teachers on time allotted for science (Component 1) resulted in an affirmation that the staff had made a conscious decision to cut back on science in order to devote more time to basic skills instruction. In another case, however, the same data (little time allotted for science) described teachers who simply did not like "the mess and bother" and so were ignoring the district direction. Some principal pressure combined with tips on how to avoid "the mess and bother" resulted in teachers not only teaching the units, but being excited because their students seemed to be benefiting.

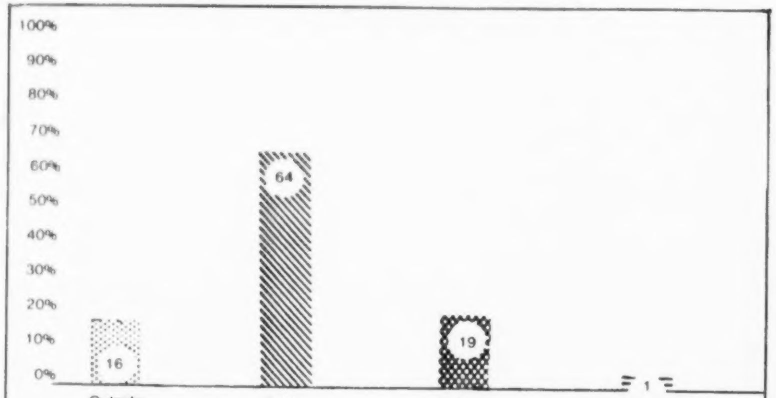
Finally, component profiles were made up for the district-wide sample. These enabled staff developers to see the success of their efforts. Histograms such as Figure 9 described what percent of teachers fell in each category of use. Component 10, considered by district staff to be critical to the success of the curriculum for students, showed minimal use. Few teachers (1%) were facilitating student experimentation and discussion in an exemplary way. From these data district staff learned that the inservices they were offering were not helping teachers acquire these particular skills. One result of this finding was a series of workshop opportunities for teachers which helped them maximize student inquiry and interaction using special grouping strategies.

Summary

In the Jefferson County staff development effort, we found the three evaluation techniques described in this article very useful in both understanding and monitoring the effect of the effort on teachers and schools. The techniques themselves, Stages of Concern, Levels of Use, and Component Assessment, underscore the strong beliefs we share about staff development evaluation:

1. The "proof of the pudding" for staff development efforts aimed at helping teachers develop new skills and/or use new practices lies in *whether those practices are then used in the classroom.*
2. The only way to find out about change in classroom practice is to *interact individually with each teacher* to find out, and

Figure 9
Percent of Implementation o f the Revised Elementary Science Program for Component # 10



Outside intended program	Getting a good start	Well on the way	Best practices working
CRITERIA			
• Objectives not shared with students • No discussions dealing with concept formation are held • Teacher lectures and asks "fill in the blank" questions. • "Rap session" discussions dominate to the exclusion of activity based learning	• Objectives shared with students • Discussions are limited to data sharing. Occasional concept discussions. • Some good discussion techniques are used • Some questions above the recall level and open ended		• Objectives shared with students in their language. • Discussion is an integral part of learning cycle. • Discussion techniques include: large/small groups used appropriately, wait-time--neutral reward, divergent questions, "basketball" discussion, etc.

3. Evaluations are only good *if they are useful,* and can directly contribute to further improvement in teachers and schools.

The three techniques we used do measure the use of new practices in the classroom and we believe that these techniques are among the most useful for assessing teacher change. They have been used widely, in a cost-effective way, and have repeatedly assisted staff developers to provide more effective assistance to teachers and schools.

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